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THE SEVENTH YEARBOOK
OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC
STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I
THE RELATION OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS
TO THE TRAINING AND PROFESSIONAL IMPROVE-
MENT OF THEIR TEACHERS

BY
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EDITED BY
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SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

THE SUBJECT OF THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE WASHINGTON
MEETINGS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY ON MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24, AT 7:45
P. M., AND WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1908, AT 4:30 P. M.

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PREFACE

Three years ago the subject of the *Seventh Yearbook* was proposed as an important field for the National Society to investigate. Since that time several of the ablest and most progressive superintendents in the United States have made positive advance in the solution of the problems involved in the relation of superintendents and principals to the training and improvement of their teachers.

That the study presented in this *Yearbook* should have been made by one who has been connected with the movement at perhaps its most active storm center is fortunate for manifest reasons. Charles D. Lowry has been a district superintendent of schools in Chicago for about seven years, and therefore has the insight necessary to interpret the reports sent in from all parts of the United States and select and classify and estimate the value of data contained in such reports.

It is hoped that this *Yearbook* will be of service to superintendents, principals, and boards of education who are earnestly working to solve the important and difficult problem involved.

One important part of the *Seventh Yearbook* is intentionally postponed to be published later under separate cover. This part omitted is the supplementary study of the kindergarten in its relation to elementary education. This supplement is to be devoted entirely to the practical relation, the necessary unity and continuity of kindergarten and primary education. Subscribers to the *Yearbook* will get this supplement as a part of the present issue without extra charge.

M. J. HOLMES

INTRODUCTION

Recently there was sent out by the secretary of this Society to many of its members and others, a circular¹ asking each (1) to give his views as to the need for carrying on systematic work for training the teaching force to a higher degree of efficiency, and (2) to make a statement of the nature of such work, if any, that is carried on in the school system with which he is connected. A number of very interesting replies were received. The following paper is practically a summary of these reports. No effort has

¹ This circular read as follows:

The next meeting of the Society for the Scientific Study of Education (February, 1908) will be devoted to the discussion of the relation of superintendents and principals to the improvement of teachers after they have entered the profession. To Mr. C. D. Lowry, district superintendent, Chicago, has been assigned the duty of preparing the paper. This paper is to contain (1) a statement of the reasons why the work of improvement of teachers should be carried on systematically, and (2) a summary of the best methods that are in use throughout the country to attain the end desired.

Will you kindly prepare a statement covering these two points as seen from the standpoint of the work in your city? The inclosed questionnaire has been prepared simply to make your reply easier. It need not be followed if you prefer to adopt some other plan.

It will be particularly interesting to know what is being done in your city for the improvement of teachers. Wherever printed rules of the board of education will supply this information, kindly furnish a copy.

This paper will be printed in the *Yearbook* of the Society. We hope to make it a valuable handbook for superintendents and boards of education. It is therefore desirable that the information be as full and accurate as possible. We should also like the privilege of printing *verbatim* portions of any returns that may seem suited for such use.

The importance of this study and its practical value when published in book form surely warrant our asking even the busiest superintendents to co-operate by returning at the earliest possible day the data herein requested.

The time for preparing the paper is short; therefore please send reply directly to C. D. Lowry, district superintendent, Board of Education Rooms, Chicago, Ill.

Yours very respectfully,

MANFRED J. HOLMES,
Secretary, and Editor of YEARBOOK

been made to state the number of replies to each point nor the number of places reporting a certain kind of work, the effort being to present, as a whole, the views of the various correspondents on the question of the need for the work and a summary of the leading lines of work that are being undertaken. In a few instances, the rules of the boards of education have been quoted or summarized.

The thanks of the writer are hereby extended to all who so kindly co-operated in this work. The author has added but little to the statements found in the various papers.

Two important lines of work for the improvement of teachers have not been touched in this study, namely, the "Preparation of Teachers," and the "Certification of Teachers." Both of these topics, however, have been treated in previous Yearbooks of the Society.

W. H. C.

THE RELATION OF PRINCIPALS AND SUPERINTENDENTS TO THE TRAINING AND IMPROVEMENT OF THEIR TEACHERS

CHARLES D. LOWRY

District Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.

THE PROBLEM

Success in any occupation depends upon the native ability, the initial equipment, and the intensity of the desire for improvement existing in the worker. This statement applies to work in its broadest sense, including that of the artist, the professional man, and the mechanic.

The intensity of the desire for improvement is in direct proportion to the stimulus which it receives. This stimulus may come from the worker's conscientiousness and his love for excellence, or it may be the result of external influences, such as the opportunity to obtain pecuniary or other rewards. Conscientiousness and love for excellence are peculiar to no rank of society; there will be, doubtless, about as many people having these qualities in one occupation as in another. The effect of this stimulus, therefore, is about equally potent in all. The differences lie chiefly in the external stimulation.

In most occupations the encouragement for improvement is furnished by the conditions governing the practice of the occupation itself. A physician who is not well equipped, who is unsuccessful in diagnosis, who does not keep abreast of progress in the treatment of disease, cannot retain any considerable practice and is seldom trusted with difficult cases. The public knowing little of medicine, can yet apply the rule of judging a tree by its fruits; they can tell a sick child from a well one and they soon learn to judge pretty fairly as to a physician's ability to heal.

With the teaching profession, it is otherwise. The public are not so successful in discriminating a well-taught child from one poorly taught. The indications are not so pronounced. The sick child is

unhappy and makes those about him suffer; the poorly taught child is not unhappy and seldom causes his parents much anxiety on that score; the mischief is insidious; the consequences come to the surface only in later years.

In medicine the public demands that which is modern. In school work, they are apt to demand the ancient. Parents like to have their children taught in the good old-fashioned way. The desire for better work does not come from the public, but from the progressive members of the teaching profession. This, then, is the first and greatest reason why the present topic, "The Relation of the Principal and the Superintendent to the Improvement of Teachers," is of special importance. The plans for improvement must originate with them and be carried forward by them, if they are ever to come at all.

✓ When the conditions under which the work of teaching is done are examined into, the need for carrying this work on steadily and systematically is shown more clearly. To carry a little farther the comparison between the medical profession and that of teaching: the physician cannot begin to practice until he has passed through a lengthy and somewhat severe course of training, which training has been passed upon by legally constituted authorities. This severe requirement is of recent growth. A century ago, a man might begin the practice of medicine with as much ease and as little training as is needed today in many parts of the country for young men and young women to begin teaching. The laws in force in many of the larger cities give great encouragement to teachers who have graduated from accredited normal schools having at least a two-year course, and to students who have graduated from accredited colleges having pedagogical courses; but it is still true that owing to the scarcity of teachers there are being admitted to the service in practically all school systems teachers who began their work with only a high-school education, and in many places with much less than this. Furthermore, there are today in probably all school systems many teachers who began their service before the requirements were anything like as high as they are today, and when the examinations themselves were much easier than they are now. Therefore, without relaxing their efforts to secure a high degree of preparation in teachers, the superintendent and the principal must

give more time and attention to making good teachers of those now in service.

The situation is well illustrated by the following quotations:

In Baltimore for many years prior to 1900, the indispensable minimum of scholarship for teaching in the elementary schools was provided for by the requirement of high-school graduation or its equivalent as a condition of employment. Graduation from the high school was here, as in many other cities, very ill-advisedly taken as evidence of ability to teach. A few years earlier, a still lower standard prevailed. There are teachers yet in the service whose attainments at the time of their appointment were tested only by an examination about suited to pupils in an upper grammar grade of an elementary school. These, however, are few, and they have gained increased scholarship while teaching. In either case the young teacher was placed in charge of a class with only the empirical ideas about teaching that came unconsciously from years of association in elementary and high schools with her own teachers, themselves, in many instances, not especially well qualified for their work, and consequently, presenting for imitation not the best models. A teacher thus equipped has some knowledge of the common branches, but she knows little of the learning process and, therefore, her efforts are uneconomically expended. She does not know how to present subjects in such a manner as to engage the child's interest and call forth his best efforts; consequently, disciplinary problems are the prominent ones. She begins with the younger children because these are the only ones she can keep in order. A few teachers of superior natural ability quickly gain considerable skill; others, in the course of time, achieve a moderate degree of success; and still others, equally conscientious and faithful, begin their work in a purely formal and mechanical way, and, if left undisturbed, soon become chained in a dull and lifeless routine.

The situation as regards the teaching force of Kansas City (Mo.) is similar to that of many other cities rapidly growing. The demand for teachers is constant. We employ as many experienced teachers from the outside as are attracted to us by the salary offered. Previous to 1891, eligibility to appointment to the city schools depended upon passing an examination given by the county commissioner. Few applicants ever failed to pass it. Teachers, except those holding state certificates, were examined annually or biennially, therefore, for the purpose of keeping up the standard(?). Attendance at the county institute was recognized as an equivalent. Few ever were absent. About 1891, the state legislature changed the law relating to the examination of our city teachers. Since that time a committee of two principals and a high-school teacher has constituted the examining board, the stand-

ard of whose examinations has been essentially higher than that of the county commissioner.

The school board of Kansas City does not require professional training. As conditions are now it could not make such a requirement. We have no city training school, no city normal college, no teachers' college. Of the annual output of the five normal schools in the state, we receive, obviously, a very small part. Neither is conformity to a high standard of scholarship required, unless the ability to pass the preliminary examination is so accounted. While the school board places a correct value on a college diploma, it is not required. Notwithstanding this, a considerable number of the teachers, both in the high schools and in the elementary schools, are college bred. . . . We have among us scholarly teachers who are graduates of high schools only. Their student days have never ended. We have among us representatives of both foreign and American universities. We have teachers of native ability who have had but little, if any, strictly professional preparation. We have teachers who, to a general education, have added such professional training as is given in a two-year course at a state normal school, and others who have taken a year's course. Among our teachers are several who, previous to accepting an appointment in this city, were teaching in a normal school, or a college, or acting as superintendent of a town-school system. We have representatives from several teachers' colleges. We also have teachers who were educated in various academies such as once flourished in many of the states. And we have the contingent, increasing each year, that has graduated from the city high schools, passed the teachers' examination, substituted one year in the schools, and received temporary appointment as teachers. During the period of substituting, these beginners have learned a few devices. They are almost helpless if left to themselves. They have little knowledge of children and little knowledge of the subjects to be taught. They belong to no school of thought, they know nothing of the philosophy of education, or of its history, or of its principles, or of its practice. These at a small salary are put in charge of a room. They have youth and personal charm, and what may be called flexibility of character; they are enthusiastic and eager to succeed. Their personality tides them over the period of their novitiate, and if they remain in the service, they sometimes become valuable members of it.

To quote from the report from Grand Rapids (Wis.):

After such a teacher (high-school graduate) has had a little experience she acquires considerable mechanical skill in teaching. Professional knowledge is liable to become limited to methods and devices. Theories underlying the devices and the larger problems of the nature of the child become to her a sealed book which she neither knows how to open nor does she consider it worth her while to make an attempt.

Even when the teachers who enter the service come with the preparation furnished by the best normal schools and colleges, there is still need for much careful training and instruction. The college graduate while well equipped from an academic standpoint, has only theoretical knowledge of methods of presenting material and of the training and management of children. It is a common experience that these teachers are apt to make a failure in the classroom at the beginning of their work unless they are carefully supported and directed until they have acquired, from practice, skill in meeting classroom problems. With the normal-school graduate, no matter how well the practice work done in connection with her training has been arranged, there must be something artificial about it and the conditions that confront the teacher when she is thrown entirely upon her own resources are very different from those to which she has been accustomed. On the other hand, much of the instruction which she has received on the theoretical lines has been but partly comprehended since she had no real body of experience with which to interpret it; hence, much of the greatest value will have been forgotten before the opportunity to apply has come, and its value in helping her to solve her problems of school work will be largely lost unless it is recalled to her through continued study and careful supervision, and unless the applications of these doctrines of education are pointed out to her in practice. Moreover, these young women rush from childish studies to professional discipline and without having really passed through the changes of girlhood, they undertake to shape the plastic minds of children, minds from which they have by their own rapid physical and emotional growth been removed farther in sympathy than are men and women of more mature years.

A few years ago, the complaint was frequent that the insecurity of tenure worked against the attaining of the best service in the school work. This complaint still applies, no doubt, in rural communities and smaller cities. In the larger cities, the condition is quite the reverse. After a teacher has once become established in a system by virtue of one or two years of moderately successful work, her position becomes practically permanent if she continues to do work which is barely mediocre; and the adoption, in many places, of laws, establishing a teachers' pension fund, by giving the

teachers a sort of legal claim to their positions, has also given much comfort to the mediocre teacher.

Still another, and, perhaps, the most serious reason why it is important to train teachers to their highest efficiency is this: in practically every occupation but ours when a worker becomes less and less efficient, and where, for any reason, it is desirable to retain him in the service, there are found positions of less and less importance which he can fill acceptably or with little detriment to the service. In a graded school, on the contrary, the teacher of the highest efficiency and the teacher of less efficiency have equally important problems to solve, and poor work by either is equally harmful. Each teacher is in charge of forty or fifty children for five hours a day during the years when the physical, mental, and spiritual natures of those children are most plastic. If there is any difference in this regard, it is that the poorer teachers are placed in the lower grades where their weakness is less apparent—the places of all others the worst for the poor teacher, her apparent success in these grades being due to her ability to form these immature and plastic minds upon the bad ideals which she herself represents.

THE SOLUTION

The lines of work reported may be roughly divided into five classes: (1) supervision; (2) work undertaken voluntarily by teachers; (3) work required of teachers; (4) work stimulated by pecuniary rewards or advance in position; (5) miscellaneous.

These lines of work are not always distinct from each other; for example, the work undertaken voluntarily is often that suggested by the superintendent and oftentimes, no doubt, suggested so directly as to seem almost a requirement.

1. *Supervision*

The first method for the improvement of teachers, and the one in most general use, is that of supervision in its various forms. In the smaller cities, the teacher has a peculiar advantage because she is under the supervision of a principal, who has under him but a few teachers, and also the supervision of a superintendent, whose entire corps may be less than one hundred, so that every teacher is known intimately by both the principal and the superintendent and the needs of each one may be carefully discussed and

promptly met. In many of the smaller cities, in addition to the regular teachers there are special teachers of music, drawing, manual training, physical training. These teachers either conduct the work in their respective departments themselves or supervise the work as done by the regular teacher. Where the latter course is pursued, the special teacher gives model lessons in each of the classrooms, criticizes the work that has been done since the last visit, gives directions for future work, and holds classes or institutes for the instruction of teachers in these branches. In many cities the entire work in these special subjects is under the care of the special teachers and the individual principals have little responsibility in the matter.

In a few cities supervision is further extended. In Baltimore, for example, grade supervisors devote their attention to the supervision of the work in one or two grades, the advantage being that by having supervision of such a narrow range of work the supervisor becomes very expert, and the work in all of the schools is brought up to the standard of the excellence of the supervisor herself as far as that is consistent with the varying ability of the teachers with whom she works. She has the advantage of comparing the work done in her special grades in the various schools in the city—an advantage which the principal confined to one building cannot have.

In other places, the work is still further subdivided by the appointment of supervisors of a single subject, as, for instance, arithmetic, throughout the primary grades. A very interesting form of supervision is that given by the supervisor of substitutes, which is reported from one or two cities. This teacher visits each teacher as she begins her work, helps her in the preparation of outlines and in the various problems that arise, meets the entire body of substitutes at stated intervals for purposes of study and instruction. She also visits the newly appointed teacher, works with her in the classroom for a day at a time, and then sends her to visit some other classroom while the supervisor takes charge of the work. On the third day, she remains with the new teacher, discusses with her the conditions that have arisen in her absence and the work which she has seen in the school which she visited.

A most interesting work for associations of schools in rural

communities is that undertaken by Superintendent Cook, in Baltimore County (Md.). Here a supervisor has been appointed to visit and instruct teachers in the work of the primary grades, and another to instruct them in the work in the grammar grades. The supervisor meets each group of teachers once a month and small groups are organized for the consideration of special studies on Saturdays or in the evenings. The board of education contributes toward the expense of these classes.

Beyond question this work of supervision is and always will be the most important of all the ways in which the character of the teaching is to be improved. As the superintendent is, so is the force, especially in the smaller cities where the personality of the superintendent can be felt through all the parts of the system. This influence is exerted in many ways. Mr. Gay, of Haverhill, says:

In visits for personal inspection and suggestion, I am generous in praise of the good things which I see, and criticise only when I believe my criticism will be received in the right spirit and will probably work improvement. I gave up years ago all criticism for the sake of freeing myself from responsibility. Often I refrain from direct criticism and talk to the principal of the school concerning the teacher's faults. I am reaching the conclusion that I would better always consult the principal before making criticism of any kind. The reason for this will be appreciated by every experienced superintendent.

The best method of helping teachers is, I believe, by example. The superintendent or principal should be always at his post of duty, and always within call of every teacher to assist her in any possible way. Early and late, in season and out of season, school days and holidays, it should be known that he is trying to do all that his time and strength will permit to promote the interests of the schools. He must always say "Come;" must study harder and work more hours than his teachers; must set a pace which his best teachers find it impossible to follow. Otherwise, he should resign and let some one who will do more and better work take his place.

Mr. Arthur Le Fevre, of Victoria, Tex., gives some good theoretical views regarding the work of the superintendent.

His work with teachers should be toward forming right ideals as to education, the training of enlightened, steadfast character, the developing of power, of inner freedom, of courage; to point out to teachers the futility of conning textbooks prepared for young pupils and to supply a list of books belonging to the real literature of each branch of study. If a teacher of any

subject has read in it only children's schoolbooks, an almost incredible sense of power and of widened horizon would result from the perusal of a book opening an insight into the true perspective of that field of human achievement and present effort. What has been dark or trivial and empty, would forthwith become for the teacher and pupil full of bright and stimulating interest.

He should train teachers, principals, and supervisors into a spirit of sincere co-operation. Each member of the force should be made to feel a responsibility for a high standard of accomplishment in his department, and also for the work of the whole system. Each member of the force should be free in minor details in executing the work assigned.

It should be the constant care of the superintendent to make the conditions under which the work of teaching is done as favorable as possible.

Next in importance to the supervision of the superintendent comes that of the principal. Indeed, in our larger cities, his supervision, as far as it touches the work of the individual teacher, is by far the more important. He is often in charge of more pupils than are found in the entire school population of a moderate-size town. The work of a given school in one of our cosmopolitan cities may be strikingly different from that of its neighbors. One school may be made up of Jewish children, an adjoining one of Italian, and a third, of Swedish. In one school in Chicago there are pupils representing nearly every prominent race of Europe and many of the smaller ones. Each school must adapt itself to the needs of its community. This work must have a unity and no one can unify it but the principal; his office should be magnified, his responsibility increased. The policy of instruction, whether in the regular or in the special subjects, should be his and not that of the visiting supervisor, no matter how expert she may be in her particular line. Expert assistance he, of course, needs; but as far as is possible, this should come from teachers located permanently in the school. Every school faculty should contain such expert talent. If the importance of this policy is appreciated and a consistent effort is made to bring about the result just mentioned, it will be surprising to find out how much latent talent there exists in every school corps—talent which may be wonderfully developed by careful training. This development is difficult if a teacher is placed in charge of a single room for an entire year and expected to teach all the sub-

jects in the curriculum. But even if this plan is pursued, the principal, by carefully noticing the special aptitudes of his teachers, can utilize the special skill of each to instruct the others, and thus, in a measure, give to each teacher in his school the benefit of the help of the best work of all. This policy not only will have a helpful initial influence upon the work of the school, but the effect is cumulative. Every one likes to be appreciated and if a teacher feels that her special talent is recognized, she will labor earnestly to improve herself still further in this direction. A secondary and very vital gain will result from the spirit of friendliness and mutual helpfulness developed in the school. This will be of great value. The united efforts of twenty-five people are of immensely more influence than the separate efforts of the same number.

Another, and still better way to make use of the talents of the various teachers is by means of the so-called departmental plan of instruction. This method, by relieving teachers from the necessity of preparing their work in a great variety of subjects and thus allowing them the opportunity, time, and strength for special preparation in favorite lines, tends to produce a corps of scholarly, expert teachers from one that was previously only of the ordinary grade. This policy has been pursued in many of the schools of Chicago. In one school, where the departmental method is used, the entire work in the ordinary subjects and also in singing, drawing, manual training, and domestic science is carried on by the regular grade teachers. It is surely better to work toward this end than to distract the teacher by requiring her allegiance to supervisors of separate grades, of arithmetic, drawing, sewing, construction work, physical training, etc.

The plan of making the school a unit is of equal and, perhaps, greater importance in the training it gives to the principal. When the principal is relieved of responsibility in the special subjects, he loses interest in them, and these subjects not only suffer from lack of the daily supervision which can be given only by the principal who is present at all times, but they lose by becoming isolated from the other school work. Thus results a lack of unity in the school experience of the children, which is oftentimes detrimental. In Chicago, while there are still special teachers, responsibility has of late years been placed more and more in the hands of the principal

of the school. He is made to feel that the success of the work in drawing, for example, depends as much upon his interest and skill as does the success of the work in the ordinary subjects, such as mathematics or history.

A visiting supervisor should work through the principal, advising with him rather than with the teachers direct. In no case should the supervisor issue orders to the teacher. It should be her business to point out to the principal the needs of the various teachers; to give assistance to these teachers in ways which the principal may decide. This process, while indirect, and hence slow, tends to place responsibility and hence, ultimately, to produce a high degree of efficiency.

From the admirable report of Mr. Van Sickle is quoted the following classification of teachers and statement of the duties of the supervising force in relation to each class:

(1) Superior teachers who need no stimulation other than their own ideals of excellence: By the fine standard of work which they maintain and by their student-like habits they might under favorable conditions, set the pace for the entire teaching force. At the present time, this group is a large one. With this group, supervision is chiefly concerned in gaining their co-operation in working out the problems and in bringing their influences to bear on other teachers in tactful ways.

(2) Teachers possessing a good degree of executive ability and adequate scholarship of the book-learning variety, who resist change because they honestly believe the old ways are better: They are patriotic defenders of the views and traditions and practices in which they were reared. The greater number of these will as strongly support the new when fully convinced of its advantages; but in the absence of positive orders they resist proposed changes until absolutely conclusive demonstration is furnished in a concrete way. Supervision must confidently accept these conditions and furnish demonstration.

(3) Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill or both, self-conscious and timid, because unacquainted with standards of work and valid guiding principles, desirous of avoiding observation, doing their work in a more or less perfunctory and fortuitous way: supervision needs to give these teachers courage by an exhibition of standards plainly within their reach and by personal work in their own classrooms.

(4) Teachers lacking adequate scholarship or practical skill or both, but not conscious of this lack and therefore unaware of any need of assistance:

Some form of positive direction is here necessary in the first stages of supervision.

(5) Teachers yet in the early years of their service: Supervision should be able to concern itself chiefly in keeping these teachers in class 1 so far as their personal attitude is concerned. There will, of course, always be differences among them in scholarship and personal power, but all should have guidance in kind and quantity adapted to prevent any of them, even the weakest, from developing the characteristics of class 2, class 3, or class 4. If these new recruits are to be able to lead children to be open-minded, to hold opinions tentatively, to be sure but not too sure, to be willing to give both sides of a question a hearing before reaching a final conclusion, they must keep themselves open-minded. To aid them in doing this, supervision will keep itself free from dogmatism even in dealing with the youngest teachers.

Teachers of class 1, class 2, and class 5 are willing to have their work seen and valued by competent and trusted supervisors. People who know how to do a thing, or who sincerely think they know how, or who sincerely wish to learn how, are neither afraid nor reluctant to have their work seen by any fair-minded person. Supervisors must be both skilful and fair-minded, and their work must prove that supervision means help.

II. *Voluntary Work*

The second form of work is that undertaken by the teachers themselves either individually or through organizations encouraged by school authorities. This work is very extensive. It is reported from every city from which replies have been received. This is a high tribute to the enthusiasm and devotion of teachers to their work. It takes the form of work in colleges or in normal-school classes, university extension, normal-school extension, book reviews, neighborhood clubs for the study of various subjects, and lecture associations. Providence, Rhode Island, reports that, as a result of an inquiry made some years ago, it was found that of thirty-three high-school men, twenty-three had, while teaching, taken distinct courses at various colleges and several had studied abroad; of forty-four high-school women, thirty-one had done similar work in colleges or elsewhere; eight men had received A.M.'s or Ph.D.'s. These degrees had been given for work accomplished; they were not honorary. Many certificates had been received from Harvard, Clark, and the University of Chicago for summer work; of forty-five kindergartners, forty had pursued studies along the line of their

work, while others had taken work in general culture at Brown University; of 464 grade teachers, 313 had carried on studies of various kinds. During the past winter, several hundred took the Brown University extension course; fifty-six took examinations and received credits toward degrees.

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One of the most interesting of these voluntary organizations is reported from Kansas City (Mo.). In 1878, Superintendent J. M. Greenwood and a few friends formed a coterie for the study of the modern philosophical systems. Ten years later the scope of topics was widened. These years had been devoted to the study of philosophical systems, literary phases of the world, and economic conditions of the different countries.

The club, now called the "Greenwood Club," is composed of such citizens as are disposed favorably toward a higher and broader education, including teachers, preachers, doctors, lawyers, and business men. The plan of work is simple. There is no formality. A president and a treasurer are the only officers. Subjects are assigned by a committee. A paper from thirty to forty minutes in length is presented by an essayist. After the paper, the subject is before the club and any one present may participate in the discussion.

The general influence of this organization upon the teaching force of the city has been remarkable. Every strong teacher who has been selected to take positions elsewhere on account of superior qualifications has been an active member of this club. The primary object had in view was to give breadth and a wider scope to the general scholarship of the teachers of the city. The topics discussed during the long series of years of the club's existence have been of the highest order and extend over practically the whole range of human interest. A few will show the character: Gaul under Roman Influence; The Rise of Modern Thought; Victor Hugo and His Contemporaries (a long series of meetings); The Early History of Kansas City; The Gospel for the Modern Day Congregation; The Club a Menace to the Home; The Standpoint of the Parent; Municipal Ownership; Recent Progress in Therapeutics.

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Some form of positive direction is here necessary in the first stages of supervision.

(5) Teachers yet in the early years of their service: Supervision should be able to concern itself chiefly in keeping these teachers in class 1 so far as their personal attitude is concerned. There will, of course, always be differences among them in scholarship and personal power, but all should have guidance in kind and quantity adapted to prevent any of them, even the weakest, from developing the characteristics of class 2, class 3, or class 4. If these new recruits are to be able to lead children to be open-minded, to hold opinions tentatively, to be sure but not too sure, to be willing to give both sides of a question a hearing before reaching a final conclusion, they must keep themselves open-minded. To aid them in doing this, supervision will keep itself free from dogmatism even in dealing with the youngest teachers.

Teachers of class 1, class 2, and class 5 are willing to have their work seen and valued by competent and trusted supervisors. People who know how to do a thing, or who sincerely think they know how, or who sincerely wish to learn how, are neither afraid nor reluctant to have their work seen by any fair-minded person. Supervisors must be both skilful and fair-minded, and their work must prove that supervision means help.

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of other walks of life, and in this way she loses the narrowness and somewhat unpractical cast of thought which is a frequent consequence of long associations with immature minds.

A very valuable work reported from several cities is that of a systematic consideration by committees of principals or teachers of the various topics in the course of study or of various phases of teaching. In Chicago for several years, the principals of the schools were divided up into committees for the study of the regular subjects in the course of study. Each committee began by formulating a tentative plan of subject-matter, materials, and methods of teaching. The details of these plans, especially those portions about which there was a difference of opinion, were then taken up by each principal and discussed with his teachers and tested in actual schoolroom practice. The results of this work in the school were then reported back to the committee and a new formulation was undertaken and new phases of the work taken up. This course was systematically pursued through a long period; the outcome being a series of monographs on the topics of the course of study. These again were utilized in the formation of a tentative course of study. This course was put in practice for one year; at the end of the year reports were received from each school, and a new course formulated. This was again put in practice for a year, and a second series of reports called for. The formulation of this course of study as a result of the latter reports has just been completed though it is considered that the course is by no means fixed. The result of this continuous study into the values and methods used in the schools not only resulted in greatly improving the nature of the material and the methods but also had an extremely helpful influence upon the principals and teachers themselves.

The following very interesting lines of work are reported from St. Louis (Mo.):

First of these should be named the Society of Pedagogy, a purely voluntary organization whose annual membership reaches about fifteen hundred, of which at least twelve hundred are teachers in the St. Louis Public Schools. The section meetings assemble on the first and third Saturday mornings of each month, October to April. The society also maintains a course of lectures during the season, presenting usually eight or ten notable people each season. Some of the topics discussed are the following: pedagogy; edu-

cational psychology; current school topics; the Renaissance; physiography; French; Spanish; manual training; classics; Shakespeare; contemporary literature; United States history; primary geography; singing; physics.

The next notable opportunity presented is in the classes of the Saturday Normal College. These classes are held on the second and fourth Saturday mornings of each month, October to April, and are designed primarily for the apprentice teachers, who are required to attend. They are held in the Critique Room of the Teachers' College, which will permit an audience of about three hundred and is usually filled to its utmost capacity by the voluntary attendance of teachers whose grade work is being illustrated, these classes being always in the nature of practical illustrations.

A third and extremely important opportunity is that furnished by the extension course of the Teachers' College. It is a notable fact that these classes are always filled to their extreme limit.

Length of course: Courses will continue for twenty weeks beginning at the Teachers' College, October 8, and at the Sumner High School, October 9, and closing March, 1908.

Recitation periods: Classes in all subjects will meet once each week at 4:15 P. M. and continue in session one hour.

Regulation as to enrollment and attendance: It is requested that teachers enroll in one course only. No teacher will be allowed to enroll in more than two courses.

Owing to laboratory conditions, the class in biology, will be limited to twenty-four members. It is intended that members in all other classes, except the chorus class, shall not exceed thirty. No class will be organized with less than fifteen members, and any class will be discontinued whose number in attendance for three consecutive weeks falls below ten.

Not more than four nor less than two hours of home study each week will be necessary.

Nature of instruction: Each subject will be presented, as far as possible, from both the academical and pedagogical points of view, and the fullest opportunity will be given for the intellectual activity and growth of each individual student.

• III. *Required Work*

To begin with the country teachers: In many counties they are required to attend during the summer an institute of from five to ten days of from five to seven hours each; if the work of these periods involved a series of lines of systematic work, it would be equivalent to carrying one or two courses in college through a year. In addition, they are required during the year, to read two books;

one on a professional subject and one on an academic subject. Oftentimes they are expected to make written reports upon these books or to pass examinations upon them. In a few communities, the teachers are expected to attend summer schools, of from two to four weeks each.

In quite a number of the states the certificate to teach is valid for only a short time—from six months to three years; thus making it necessary for the teacher to pass new examinations at brief intervals. In most of the cities, the candidate's first certificate is valid for one year, but is renewed at the end of the first year if the work has been satisfactory. The certificate is again renewed under the same conditions at the end of the second year and if at the end of the third year the work is still satisfactory, the certificate becomes permanent. During these years of probation, the character of the work is reported upon by the various supervisors, by the principals or superintendents who have observed the work; and, in some instances, where there are special classes for beginners, the completion of certain work in these beginners' classes is taken into account in determining the standing of the young teacher.

For the great body of teachers in cities, the required work takes the form of institutes or study classes; of these, there are a great variety. In Kansas City (Mo.) we find the following:

1. The institute: A regular monthly meeting on Saturdays, from nine to twelve o'clock, organized in three divisions: The Primary Section, the Grammar Section, and the High-School Section. It includes all principals and teachers in the public schools. The first half hour is devoted to the general meeting in charge of the superintendent. From 9:30 to 11, the institute is divided into a number of groups in each of which there is carried on a connected line of study. A few of the topics selected from recent programs indicate the character of the work. Elementary Grade Section: Primitive German Life and Character; Teaching of Spelling, Grammar, Geography, etc. High-School Section: Manual Training, Its Physiological Value, Its Industrial Value, Its Ethical Value; Sociological Problems of Kansas City; Shortcomings of the High-School English Course. At 11 o'clock, the general program is presented, the main feature of which is a formal address by some person of note.

2. The monthly consultation of principals with their teachers on the last Friday of each school month, meeting of one hour: This hour is devoted either to conferences on school management or to intensive study along some one line. In one school, the meetings each year for a series of years, were devoted to the study of some particular topic in literature, a few of which were—Talks on the Study of Literature; Freytag's *Technique of the Drama*; Horne's *Philosophy of Education*.

3. Monthly principal's meeting, from 9 to 12 on Saturdays: The final object of which is to get the best experience from all of the principals and to serve as a means for propagating in the field of education the dominant educational ideas of the world.

The high order of the work done in these meetings is indicated by topics selected from a recent program: Importance of Diplomatic History; The Janitor's Side of the Public School Work; The Scientific and Scholastic Training of the Educators in Germany is the Cause of German Industrial and Commercial Supremacy; A Comparison of the Educational Systems of France and Japan; The Elementary and Secondary Schools of England Compared with the Elementary and Secondary Schools of Missouri.

Papers on these subjects were presented by two principals at each of the meetings. Many cities report a similar series of meetings.

In addition to these, many cities report institutes, which the teachers are required to attend, held by the special teachers of physical training, of drawing, and of music. Also, grade institutes, and institutes in particular subjects as, grammar, history, etc., are held at frequent intervals, especially at the beginning of the year. In the smaller cities, these meetings are presided over by the superintendent of schools. Here all the teachers of a grade are gathered together and some topic is discussed and some work is taken up that is of common interest, or the best methods of teaching subjects of the grades in question are presented by means of model lessons given by teachers who are particularly expert.

In certain small cities, the superintendent conducts a class in professional study meeting once a week for one hour; all teachers are expected to attend this class.

One of the most interesting organizations is the Helena Kin-

dergarten Council which has been in existence for a number of years. It is composed of the teachers of the kindergarten and of the early primary grades. It holds eight meetings a year devoted to a great variety of topics connected with the work of the grades in question. Some of these taken from different programs are as follows: The Child in Action (three meetings); The Intellectual Development of the Child; Kindergarten Out-of-Doors; The Kindergarten and the Primary Grades; The Value of the Positive rather than the Negative in Work; The Kindergarten in Many Lines (topics for an entire year).

The amount that is thus required of a teacher in a year's attendance upon these classes is quite large, certainly in most cases equivalent to two hours a week. In many cases, it is undoubtedly larger. This is not an undue requirement, and if profitably employed must result in great good to the work of the teacher.

IV. *Work Stimulated by Advance in Salary or in Rank*

The teacher, besides endeavoring to improve in directions that are pointed out to her by those with whom she works, must herself be an independent student. This is necessary in order that her intellectual horizon shall be constantly broadening and that her mind be kept pliable and in that state of efficiency designated in the field of athletics as "in training," for in no other way will she be able to grasp the problems that are constantly arising in this, the most complex of professions, and in no other way can she retain her sympathy with the learning minds over which she has care and her ability to direct these minds. Again, teaching, while it is a very conservative profession, is yet rapidly changing both as to methods and as to subject-matter. The teacher who was well equipped ten years ago is now hopelessly out of date unless she has been constantly advancing with the changes in method and in curriculum. Without regular vigorous study, the mind loses its ability to grasp the spirit of these great changes.

Miss Gertrude Edmund of Lowell, Mass., reports:

I know many teachers who are and have been pursuing professional and collegiate courses of study in connection with their regular school work, and in every case which has come under my observation these men and women have been and are today better teachers for having continued their studies.

They are sympathetic in their attitude toward the efforts of the young teachers and pupils; their minds are not decreasing in strength and mental alertness, but are open to receive new truths, and they are willing to embody these truths in practical lines of work.

The previous pages give abundant evidence that many teachers are willing to do this studying with no other motive than the love of learning and the satisfaction of being a master in one's chosen calling. This work is its own best reward, but since it is of value to the schools, it is reasonable that it should be rewarded in a tangible way, by increased salaries and by promotions. Moreover, this external motive will appeal to many who are not moved by the internal stimulus, and these are the ones who, for the good of the service, are most in need of uplifting. In endeavoring to apply this principle several cities have introduced plans which make advancement in rank or in salary depend (1) on excellence of work; (2) on presentation of evidence of some form of self-directed study.

Of the plans which give chief prominence to opportunities for promotion in rank, that of New York City is the most elaborate. This plan provides for a system of licenses which are granted partly upon record of successful service, partly upon examinations in scholarship in academic and professional subjects, and partly upon presentation of certificates showing the completion of courses in academic subjects, in colleges or universities of approved standing. The entire system will be best understood from the report of Dr. Maxwell:

"*License No. 1* is granted to candidates upon passing a professional examination in the history and principles of education, and methods of teaching, an examination in academic subjects, an oral examination to enable the examiner to estimate the applicant's use of English and general personal fitness, and a physical examination. The candidate is exempted from the academic examination upon presentation of credentials showing such work as is the equivalent to the ordinary college-entrance requirements."

There are also certain requirements as to experience in teaching.

Higher licenses are granted upon work done at a grade above that required for License No. 1. They are as follows:

Promotion Licenses.—The following are the provisions of the by-laws of the Board of Education relative to a license for promotion:

A license for promotion shall qualify the holder to act as teacher in the grades of the last two years of the elementary-school course, but no person not now teaching in the last two years of the elementary-school course shall be appointed teacher of a graduating class, who, in addition to the holding of the license for promotion, has not served at least two years in other grades of the last two years of the course.

This license shall qualify the holder to act as assistant teacher in an evening high school.

To be eligible for license for promotion to any grade in the last two years of the elementary-school course, applicants must have the following qualifications:

a) The holding of License No. 1.

b) Successful experience in teaching, as determined by records and reports of superintendents and principals, equivalent to three years' experience in the public schools of the city of New York, including one year's experience in the city of New York.

c) Examination in the principles and methods of teaching, or, in lieu of such examination, the completion in an approved institution of satisfactory courses amounting to at least sixty hours in principles and methods of teaching; and examination in one of the following subjects or groups of subjects as prescribed in the course of study for elementary schools: English (reading, grammar, composition); mathematics (arithmetic, elementary algebra, elementary geometry); history (United States history and civics); geography and elementary science; constructive work and drawing; such other subjects or groups of subjects in the course of study as may be specified by the Board of Superintendents.

Exemption is granted from examination in the principles and methods of teaching to those who complete in an approved institution satisfactory courses amounting to at least sixty hours in principles and methods of teaching.

NOTES.—(a) No exemption for the license is granted from examination in the required academic subjects or groups of subjects, viz., English, mathematics, history, geography, and science, constructive work and drawing, etc.

b) No exemption is granted for studies not included under "principles and methods of teaching." For purposes of exemption under this head "principles and methods of teaching" will be regarded as including science of education, history of education, psychology (educational, applied, genetic, pure), general method, methods of teaching special subjects, school management.

c) No course will be accepted which was not pursued in a college, university, or extension center recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York.

d) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

e) No course is accepted that was not terminated by a successful examination.

f) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies which were required to establish the eligibility of the applicant for License No. 1.

Assistant to Principal.—The by-laws provide as follows:

A license as assistant to principal or head of department shall qualify the holder for the position of assistant to principal in an elementary school or of principal of an evening elementary school or of a vacation school, or to act as teacher in charge of an elementary school of the fourth order.

To be eligible for license as assistant to principal in elementary schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

a) The holding of a permanent License No. 1, and not less than eight years' successful experience in teaching or supervision in the schools of the city of New York, or experience rated as equivalent thereto.

b) A license as principal in elementary schools:

Exemption is granted from examination in English, or in science, or in geography, history, and civics, to those who complete in an approved institution satisfactory courses, which courses shall have been pursued either during the school year for at least two years, or in a university or normal summer school during at least two six-week sessions, or during one school year and one summer session, and shall have amounted to at least one hundred twenty hours, as follows: In the science of education, sixty hours; and in some branch of literature, science, or art, sixty hours.

NOTES.—(a) No exemption is granted for this license from examination in history and principles of education, methods, and school management.

b) The "science of education" will be interpreted to include any professional subjects, namely, principles of education, psychology (educational, applied, genetic, pure), general method, methods of teaching special subjects, school management.

c) No first-year course in foreign languages will be accepted as a satisfactory course in "literature, science, or art;" but second-year and more advanced work will be so accepted.

d) "An approved institution" is interpreted to mean any institution recognized by the Regents as a college or an extension center.

e) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

f) Two thirty-hour courses will not be counted as a sixty-hour course unless they are in closely related subjects; e. g., a thirty-hour course in rhetoric together with a thirty-hour course in advanced French will not

count as a sixty-hour course; but a thirty-hour course in rhetoric together with a thirty-hour course in literature will count as a sixty-hour course; so also will a thirty-hour course in methods (general or special) together with a thirty-hour course in school management count as a sixty-hour course.

g) No course is accepted that was not terminated by a successful examination.

h) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies which were required to establish the eligibility of the applicant for License No. 1.

Principal.—A license as a principal of an elementary school shall qualify the holder for the position of principal of an elementary school, of a truant school, of an elementary evening school, or of an evening high school, provided the licensee holds in the case last mentioned the position of principal of an elementary day school.

Notes.—A license as principal of an elementary school shall qualify the holder to act as principal of an elementary school having a high-school department, provided he has also at least qualification (a) required for license as assistant teacher in a high school.

To be eligible for license as principal in elementary schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with at least eight years' successful experience in teaching or supervision. The Master's degree in arts or sciences given as the result of graduate work in a university, may be accepted in lieu of one year of such experience. The Doctor's degree in philosophy or science, given as the result of graduate work in a university, may be accepted in lieu of two years of such experience.

b) Successful experience in teaching or supervision in graded schools for at least ten years, at least five of which must have been in public schools, together with the successful completion of university or college courses satisfactory to the Board of Examiners, such courses to be in pedagogical subjects, and to amount to not less than 120 hours.

1. No exemption for this license is granted from examination in professional subjects or in Group A (English literature, grammar and rhetoric).

2. College graduates are exempted from examination in scholarship, except in Group A.

3. Applicants not graduates of colleges, unless exempted as hereinafter provided, are required to pass, in addition to the examinations mentioned in Sec. 1, an examination in two of the following groups: Group B (logic, psychology), Group C (algebra, geometry, trigonometry), Group D (physics chemistry, physiology, and hygiene), Group E (physical and mathematical geography, United States history, civil government), Group F (a language

and its literature, namely, Greek, Latin, French, German, Spanish, or Anglo-Saxon).

4. Exemption in one or in two of the groups named in Sec. 3 is granted to those who present a diploma or certificate obtained by examination on completion of satisfactory college or university courses.

NOTES.—(a) "College or university courses" are interpreted to mean courses pursued under the direction of a college or university and accepted as counting toward a degree.

b) Elementary, i. e., first and second year, courses in modern foreign languages will not be accepted as college courses, nor will preparatory work in ancient languages be so accepted.

c) Each course must extend over at least one year or one summer session.

d) No course of less than thirty hours' attendance is accepted.

e) For exemption in any group, at least sixty hours' attendance must have been given to not more than two of the subjects embraced in such group; two thirty-hour courses will not be counted for exemption in any group, unless the subjects covered by such courses fall within the same group.

f) Exemption is granted only for courses in excess of the studies required to establish the eligibility of applicants for License No. 1.

High-School Teachers.—(1) Junior Teacher: To be eligible for license as junior teacher in high schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, together with the completion of a satisfactory pedagogical course of at least one year, or, in lieu of such course, one year's satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools.

2) Assistant Teacher: To be eligible for license as assistant teacher in high schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and not less than three years' satisfactory experience as a teacher or as a laboratory assistant in secondary schools or in colleges. One year of satisfactory post-graduate work resulting in a degree may be accepted in lieu of one year of the required experience in teaching. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and typewriting, satisfactory experience in business, not exceeding two years in duration, may be accepted in lieu of an equal period in teaching.

b) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and two years' satisfactory post-graduate work in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license and in the science of education, and one year of satisfactory experience in teaching in colleges or in secondary schools or in the last two years of elementary

schools, which year of experience must not be concurrent with said post-graduate work. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and typewriting, one year of satisfactory experience in business may be accepted in lieu of the one year of teaching.

c) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and five years' satisfactory experience in teaching, at least two of which shall have been in high schools or in the last two years of the New York City public elementary schools. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects, or stenography and type-writing, satisfactory experience in business, not to exceed three years, may be accepted year for year in lieu of any part of the required experience in teaching.

d) Graduation upon completion of a satisfactory high-school course, or an equivalent academic education; seven years' satisfactory experience in teaching, including either two years of teaching in grades of the last two years of the New York City public elementary schools, or five years of teaching in secondary schools; and the completion of satisfactory university or college courses in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license amounting to not less than 120 hours, at least thirty of which shall have been in the science of education. For applicants for license to teach commercial subjects or stenography and typewriting satisfactory experience in business may be accepted, year for year, in lieu of any part, not exceeding five years, of the required experience in teaching, and satisfactory commercial courses of study may be accepted in lieu of the required college courses.

e) Applicants for license to teach music, art, physical training, or any branch of manual training, may qualify under any of the preceding heads, and also under the following:

Graduation from a satisfactory high-school course, or from an institution of equal or higher rank, and two years of professional training in the subject in which the applicant seeks a license; and four years' satisfactory experience in teaching such special subject. In the case of teachers of manual training, satisfactory experience in shop practice, not to exceed two years, may be accepted in lieu of any equal period of experience in teaching.

3) First Assistant: License as first assistant in high schools may be granted in any of the following subjects: English; classical languages; modern languages; history and civics; economics; biological science; physical science, including physics, chemistry, geography, physiography; mathematics; mechanic arts; fine arts; commercial subjects.

To be eligible for license as first assistant in high schools, the applicant must have one of the following qualifications:

a) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and one year's satisfactory

post-graduate study, which year may be concurrent with teaching experience; and five years' satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges, three of which shall have been in the New York City high schools.

b) Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and one year's satisfactory post-graduate study, which year may be concurrent with teaching experience; and seven years' satisfactory experience in teaching in secondary schools or in colleges. For applicants for license as first assistant in commercial subjects, experience in business satisfactory to the Board of Examiners may be accepted, year for year, in lieu of any part of the required college or post-graduate study.

4) Principal: To be eligible for license as principal in high schools, the applicant must have the following qualifications:

Graduation from a college or university recognized by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, and ten years' satisfactory experience in teaching or supervision, at least five of which must have been in secondary schools, in the position of superintendent or in that of examiner of the city of New York.

Dr. Maxwell reports that a very large proportion of the teaching force is constantly attending lectures in the two universities, and in other approved institutions, with a view to taking degrees and qualifying for the higher licenses in the school system.

Altogether there are fifteen varieties of certificates and each offers an opportunity for the exercise of a different sort of talent in the teacher and while each calls for written examinations in certain subjects, a large part of the credits necessary to obtain an advanced license is given for systematic study carried on through a somewhat lengthy period under teachers of the highest order. If there is any point at which the system seems to be inadequate, it is in that it offers so little encouragement to the teachers who do the work in the important years, one to six inclusive, providing the teachers prefer to remain in the work of these grades. The teachers of these grades form a very large majority of the teaching force.

There are somewhat similar grades of certificates in other school systems, though in none is the plan so fully worked out, and none, so far as reported, has adopted the admirable plan of allowing credits for studies pursued to be substituted for written examinations.

In Baltimore, besides the maximum grade salary which every good teacher may secure, there are other salaries still higher, based

on special work or duties partly executive. For example, there are at the present time, twenty positions in preparatory classes carrying a higher salary, twenty-two in special and ungraded classes, nineteen in directing practice work in the training schools, three in grade supervision, one hundred and four in vice-principalships, and twenty-three principalships. There are in all one hundred and ninety-nine of these positions carrying advanced salary in a total of about seventeen hundred elementary-school positions, or about eleven per cent. That is to say, one teacher in every nine is actually occupying a position more remunerative than the regular grade position at the maximum salary for grade work; and, sooner or later, each of the other eight may secure a like reward if, when the opportunity comes, his efficiency is such as to warrant his selection.

The second plan for encouraging teachers to do systematic study is that which reserves certain increases in salary for those who present credentials showing work done along the lines indicated in the rules of the various boards of education. The peculiar advantage of this incentive lies in its direct appeal to every teacher. This plan has been introduced in most cases quite recently and it appears in such a variety of forms that it will be necessary to present several of them in full. In general they are based upon two points, (1) success in schoolroom work and (2) the completion of certain individual lines of study. In several cases, all the details seem to the author to be of such great interest that he has been unwilling to summarize the rules, and has presented them in detail, even at the risk of being somewhat tedious.

A number of cities report plans for recognizing work done in various lines without giving details of the plans. It seems evident that the advance in salaries is adapted to the merits of each case.

Baltimore County allows an increase of \$40 per year for work in Baltimore County summer schools or for work in institutions of higher education.

Kansas City (Kan.) holds monthly meetings from 9 to 12 on Saturdays. Each group of teachers takes up a particular topic and carries it through a year. At the end of the year, examinations are held. A record is kept of all the work done by each teacher in any

educational line. Promotion in salary depends partly upon this record.

The Lincoln (Neb.) plan is as follows:

"Principals and teachers holding certificates, who have attained the maximum salary within their class, shall receive a special increase of forty-five dollars per year; provided, first, that they shall have taught not less than two years at the maximum salary within their class; second, that they shall have received credit for twenty hours university work in the following subjects: education, literature, history, foreign language, science, English. Of the twenty hours, eight hours shall be required in education; four hours in English. The credit in English is to be based upon the teacher's ability to use correct and effective English and to secure from the pupils results in all phases of English which are satisfactory to the supervision. The remaining hours may be taken in subjects best calculated to meet the needs of the individual teachers.

"Principals and teachers who have attained the first special increase, shall receive the second special increase of forty-five dollars per year; provided, first, that they shall have taught not less than two years at the salary resulting from the first special increase; second, that they shall be rated as highly efficient teachers, by the supervision; third, that they shall receive credit for fifteen hours of university work, or the equivalent, in the following subjects: education, literature, history, foreign languages, science, English. Of the fifteen hours, six hours are required in education and three in English; the credit in English is to be based upon the teacher's ability to use correct and effective English and to secure from her pupils results in all phases of English which are satisfactory to the supervision. The remaining hours may be taken in subjects best calculated to meet the needs of the individual teacher.

"The teachers in high schools are allowed two special increases of forty-five dollars per year each upon similar conditions; the work to be done being especially arranged in each case."

The twenty hours referred to in these rules is about the equivalent of one-sixth of an ordinary four-years college course.

The Cincinnati plan is as follows:

"The Cincinnati University is a civic institution of recognized standing among colleges. It takes students as they pass from high

school and gives them a four-year course. In the last two years of the college course, students may elect the training course for teachers in the department which is called the College for Teachers. The Board of Education employs the faculty for this college, spending \$10,000 a year upon it. Five instructors are employed. The university professors also give courses especially adapted to the wants of teachers in various lines. Many of these courses are placed at 4 o'clock in the afternoon, and on Saturdays. About 21 of these courses are especially designed for teachers. Last year there were 350 out of 1,000 teachers who took them. This year, each one of the faculty of the College of Teachers, and the professor of geography, are offering a series of 24 conferences with the grade teachers, each taking one grade. These conferences have been very crowded, as many as 110 teachers of a grade applying for the work. In these conferences, selected teachers state what they have done in their grade in nature work or other subjects during the past week, and the matter is then discussed by all. The object is to bring all the teaching of the schools up to the standing of the eight or ten best teachers of the grade, and to prevent stereotyped method by hearing from a variety of good teachers. The conductor works with the teacher who presents the matter so that they are in harmony in their ideas, the conductor really directing the whole trend of thought of the conference.

"From the 1,000 teachers in our schools last year, there were 1,200 professional courses taken by teachers. The year before there were 1,100.

"The incentive to do professional work lies in the provision of the rules of the Board, adopted three years ago, to make the last \$50 of the maximum salary dependent upon satisfactory teaching and professional study. Teachers must secure eight credits (not more than two a year) after they have begun teaching, in order to be eligible to the highest salary. In order to remain eligible, they must take professional courses approved by the superintendent, at least every other year; twenty-four meetings a year."

The Boston plan is as follows:

"A plan of promotional examinations has been formulated recently. According to this plan, promotional examinations are held in October and May of each year. These examinations consist of

three parts: success in the school during the preceding year; professional study and academic study in some one line. All teachers excepting principals and directors whose salary is on a sliding scale with a fixed increase for each successive year of service, must take the promotional examination next following the anniversary of the date on which they began service. Teachers successfully passing the aforesaid examination shall be placed upon the third year of salary of their respective schedule on the first of January or the first of September next following the date of the examination. Teachers who fail to pass the examination shall remain on the salary of the second year of their respective schedule for another year when they shall again be examined in the same manner. If they successfully pass the examination, they shall be placed upon the third year of salary of their respective schedule, and thereafter shall be advanced regularly on succeeding anniversaries until the sixth year of salary in their respective schedule is reached. Employment of teachers who fail to pass the aforesaid examination on two successive occasions, shall terminate after the first of September next following the date of the second examination.

"Teachers who are receiving the sixth-year salary of their respective schedule shall be examined before being placed upon the seventh year of their respective schedule. This examination consists of three parts: success in school during the preceding year; professional study; academic study in some one line. The teachers who pass this examination shall be regularly advanced on succeeding anniversaries until the maximum salary of their rank or grade is reached. Teachers who fail to pass the aforesaid examination or do not wish to take the examination shall remain on the sixth-year salary of their respective schedules until such time as they have passed this examination.

"Teachers who have successfully passed the two prescribed examinations shall not be required to pass additional promotional examination because of the change of rank.

"Teachers who, on entering the service, are placed on the advanced salary or who are promoted before passing both examinations, shall successfully pass the two prescribed promotional examinations before receiving the maximum salaries of their respective schedules.

"Teachers appointed to begin service prior to September, 1906, are exempt from the preceding regulations relating to promotional examinations excepting that the superintendent shall have authority to require of any teacher in the service to take a promotional examination in May of any year. Teachers failing to pass that examination must again be examined in the following May. The employment of teachers who have been so required to take the promotional examination and who have failed to pass the examination on two successive occasions shall terminate on August 31 next following the date of the second examination."

The following are details of the first of the above mentioned examinations. Those for the second examination have not as yet been formulated:

Success in teaching: Careful attention is given the year preceding examination to the quality of the teachers' work in their classrooms, but no separate or special examination is required to determine their markings in this particular.

Professional subjects, (1) for high-school teachers: first, a written examination, one hour in length, upon methods used by the candidate during the preceding year in teaching any one subject that the candidate shall select; second, a written examination, one hour in length, upon one of a series of pedagogical works concerning phases of secondary education.

2) For all other teachers a similar plan is pursued, namely, a written examination, one hour in length, upon methods of some subject the candidate is engaged in teaching; a written examination, one hour in length, upon some pedagogical work which deals with the line of teaching pursued by the candidate.

For purposes of the examination, the teachers are divided into teachers of grades 5 to 8; teachers of grades 1 to 4; teachers of kindergartens; teachers of special classes; teachers of manual training, sewing, cookery.

Examination in academic subjects, (1) high-school teachers: a written examination one hour in length upon any one of the following subjects not taught by the candidate during the preceding year, that he shall select: history of modern England; Dante's *Divine Comedy*; Goethe's *Faust*; history of music in the 19th cen-

tury; history of art. Certain texts are recommended in connection with each subject.

2) For teachers of grades 6 to 8, a written examination, one hour in length, upon any one of the following: American literature; English history as related to American history from 1500 A. D. to 1800 A. D.; physical geography; plane geometry.

3) For teachers of grades 1 to 5, the topics are: history of the United States; geography; mythology—age of fable.

4) For kindergarten teachers, the *Odyssey*.

5) For teachers of special classes, psychology of childhood.

6) For teachers of manual training and sewing, composition and design.

7) For teachers of cookery, chemistry applied to cookery.

In each case, suitable texts are recommended.

The Kansas City (Mo.) plan is as follows:

"With the general movement in 1903 to give our elementary teachers better salaries, the feeling was universal that they should receive for their services adequate compensation. In the corps there were teachers of all degrees of skill and attainments. Many had passed the regular examination at the first trial, while no inconsiderable number had carried old passing grades over for three or four examinations in order to secure a permanent certificate. Others, again, who had been appointed subject to examination, had received only temporary permits to teach till the next examination and seemed to stick there. Under the circumstances, to have granted a uniform flat raise in salaries, thus putting the weak and poorer class of teachers on the same footing as the best teachers on length of service only, would have been in the judgment of the Board and the superintendent, to reduce the entire teaching force to the lowest possible state of inefficiency without any recourse to recognize skilful and meritorious service. This would have been the simplest and easiest way out of the difficulty, but the effect, present and prospective, would have been the worst possible on the schools, and it would have permanently crippled, if not paralyzed, the work in every department. Prior to this agitation the experienced elementary teacher received \$65 a month for nine months' work each year. By action of the Board for all

elementary teachers who were receiving \$65 a month, or would the next year receive that salary, a flat raise was made to \$72 a month. This increased the pay of every \$585 teacher to \$720 automatically. This was a recognition of term service, but the Board believed in a still further increase of salaries on a scholarship and meritorious service basis. The next step was to work out a system open to all who wished to avail themselves of its provisions, that would enable each teacher by his or her individual effort to receive more salary. After due consideration it was unanimously agreed to by the Board that each teacher whose salary had been advanced to \$720 should be entitled to take the first professional examination to be held in September, 1904. Two professional examinations had been decided upon. The first included: history of education, philosophy of education, school management, and English literature. The standard for passing in each of these subjects was seventy per cent. After an applicant had successfully passed the first examination and taught one year, he or she was eligible to the second professional examination, which embraced the same subjects, except that the history of western Europe had been substituted for English literature.

"A committee of four elementary-school principals, two men and two women, was appointed by the Board to conduct the professional examinations. In making out the questions for examinations they were made in groups of ten in each subject, and three distinct questions in each group, so that the applicant had thirty different questions in each group to select from, but limited so as to take one question only from each group. In the four subjects, instead of forty questions, the applicant had one hundred twenty questions to choose from.

"In September, 1904, two hundred ten teachers passed the first professional examination. Those that passed had their salaries raised to \$760; that is, two hundred ten teachers received \$175 more than they had the year previous. The second examination for this group of teachers was held June, 1905. One hundred seventy-nine passed this examination. After the second professional examination is passed, if the teacher's work is satisfactory, the salary is \$825.

"The effect of the professional examinations has been without precedent in any other city of this country, and it is destined to

have a very marked influence on the teaching force of many city systems.

"At the outset the examinations met with strenuous opposition. Presently, however, the teachers as a body began to look at the matter from other view-points. Not only would they pass the two professional examinations, but as soon as they got through with the examinations, many of them went to work earnestly to obtain a degree from the State University, and ninety are now engaged in university work through the extension department established in this city by the Board of Curators of the University of Missouri. When they began to prepare for the professional examinations so many new activities were set in motion in their minds and so many new lines of thought and broader vistas of historical and philosophical knowledge opened up to them, that they organized themselves into a compact working body, and then they began regular courses of study to perfect themselves in scholarship, knowledge, and power. This is, indeed, the very highest tribute to their energy, sane thinking, and substantial views of real progress.

"Intentionally, the maximum salary for elementary teachers was not closed at the bottom, but left open at the top. Those who go automatically to \$720 are under no compulsion to get out of that class unless they desire to do so. But few ambitious teachers, however, are willing to stop there."

Although no city reported more elaborate or a greater variety of agencies of the usual sort for the improvement of teachers, such as institutes, voluntary organizations, teachers' meetings, principals' meetings, than did Kansas City, so that the ordinary incentives toward improvement have here received a most thorough test, yet the report from that city contains the following:

"The influence that more than any other one thing has stimulated study among the teachers, is the professional examination. It came upon them much in the nature of an earthquake or a tidal wave, with the result that a new system has replaced the old. It put the city schools twenty years ahead of themselves at one step. It has produced a different attitude of mind among the majority of our teachers."

The Baltimore plan is as follows:

In rearranging the salary schedule the Board has finally been

able to provide a respectable minimum salary of \$504 per annum, which all teachers of promise reach after one successful year as regularly elected teachers. The way is then open to each for an advance to \$700 per annum in increments given annually for five years upon satisfactory evidence of efficiency and progress. The special kind of progress required for advance from \$504 to \$600 is increased skill in English. This is tested by an examination. For a year or two after leaving the City Training School no line of professional study for the young teacher will, we think, yield results as useful to the school system as study tending toward accuracy and facility in the use of the mother tongue. The examination in English for 1907 is explained in the following:²

PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATION, PART I—ENGLISH

The rule for the first advance of teachers' salaries beyond \$504 (Promotional Examination, Part I) prescribes as one requirement "an impersonal test in the correct and effective use and interpretation of English." It is a well-known fact that many students secure a satisfactory general average of scholarship at graduation from the high school when their equipment and power in English are not at that time equal to a teacher's needs; yet such graduates frequently develop afterwards into very good teachers. All candidates for the first promotion in the teaching service should be able to show that since their graduation from the high school they have attained that sound judgment and refined taste in English which is the outcome of wider reading and study and greater maturity of mind than can be expected in high-school students. The examination in English, therefore, is set for the purpose of ascertaining (1) whether the teacher's own hold upon English is satisfactory; and (2) whether the teacher is in possession of some good aims and methods for the instruction of children in English composition and literature.

A teacher should be able to speak and write English with absolute correctness, and also to interpret correctly any ordinary piece of classic poetry or prose. This requirement, though, is not extensive enough; for in fact quite meager attainments suffice to make one simply correct in the use and understanding of English. Many persons speak and write in a way that is not incorrect; but their

² Taken from Supt. J. H. Van Sickle's report.

English is decidedly ineffective. Mere correctness in English is not enough to insure success in teaching.

To succeed in the classroom one's words must be effective; and effective English, does not come unsought. For the production of effective English the teacher needs all the art that can be mustered. Similarly, the teacher must be able not only to understand classic literature, but also to interpret it effectively to children; and expertness in interpretation can be secured only by systematic study.

As it is necessary for the teacher to have an effective command of English, and as it is improbable that he can gain such command without deliberate study and practice, it would seem that any candidate for promotion ought to be more than willing to show that he has pursued a course in English comprehensive enough to include a review of grammar; a good introduction into rhetoric, accompanied by sufficient practice in composition; and a careful study of a number of English classics.

Particular texts are named in order to offer to teachers who desire to make definite preparation for this examination a specific set of books to work upon. It must, however, always be remembered that no talismanic character resides in any selection of texts; others would serve quite as well.

The aim of any course in English is not primarily informational, to make one acquainted with particular pieces of literature; it is disciplinary and cultural, to create in one by the intensive study of a certain number of classics some critical insight and some literary power. Consequently the texts here selected are taken intentionally from those authors that are known to every well-read person, so that the candidate will not be burdened with the task of studying up a mass of new subject-matter; but will on the contrary need simply to make ready for some interpretative work upon classics with which he is already familiar. It is to be noted further that in no case will the memorizing of minute details be deemed sufficient to outweigh poor judgment or illogical reasoning.

The special kind of progress which we wish next to emphasize is the ability to discover problems in the work one is actually doing so that the professional growth may occur through the doing of each day's work in a professional way. Satisfactory evidence of such

progress may be submitted at any time after the advance to \$600 has been realized. It consists of an essay and discussion, a classroom demonstration, and an examination on two professional books.

PROMOTIONAL EXAMINATION, PART II—STUDY OF A SPECIAL PROBLEM

It will be observed that the promotional requirement for teachers of experience is not an examination in the ordinary sense of that term. It is given not at all for the purpose of finding out how much teachers know, and not wholly to find out what they can do. It has a dynamic purpose: to direct attention to problems which press for solution, and to cultivate in teachers a tendency to deal with these problems in a thoughtful way.

All teachers after receiving a salary of \$600 for one year, provided they are competent to teach the regular subjects of their respective grades, may become eligible to receive a salary of \$700 per annum by passing the second part of the promotional examination, which is defined as follows:

The Promotional Examination, Part II, shall consist of (a) a written report of the working out of some problem of teaching or the study of a particular group of children; (b) such a defense of the report before a board of examiners, consisting of the superintendent and two other members selected by him, as will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study; and, when required, (c) a classroom demonstration before a board similarly composed.

It will be observed that the rule defines the essay as "a written report of the working out of some problem of teaching, or the study of a particular group of children." This means that the teacher is not expected to prepare an abstract or academic discussion having no relation to his own classroom problems. The essay should, on the contrary, grow out of the candidate's actual teaching; so that, instead of his being distracted from practical problems while working for the promotional examination, he shall be the more intently studying his daily work. And in case the examiners think that an essay has been written with too little reference to the candidate's actual teaching, they will feel at liberty to call for the "classroom demonstration," in which it must be shown that the candidate was not merely theorizing in his essay.

Teachers need not hesitate to attempt such essays as are con-

templated in the rule. No great display of learning is expected, but only a clear and simple presentation of everyday schoolroom experiences that have had some educational significance for the writer. To the observant teacher, who is really trying to understand the forty children committed to his care, every school day affords such experiences; and his experiences will not exactly duplicate those of any other teacher, for his children are in many particulars unlike any other children. His observations may tend to verify or contradict what he has previously read or thought; and in either case he will be led to read further in books that treat of the aspect of teaching which has attracted his interest. Out of such reading and observation and thought will come ideas well worth being committed to writing; and these when clearly and definitely stated will doubtless form an acceptable essay. Or a teacher may secure permission to apply to his class some special plan of teaching or governing, and from his day-to-day records of this plan draw up an interesting and instructive discussion. Or why should not a teacher undertake to throw light upon classroom problems by showing how one or another procedure appears from the child's point of view? Let him show, for example, how the child is affected by this or that attitude on the teacher's part, or by this or that requirement in discipline or study. This would certainly involve "the study of a particular group of children," and would therefore, if well done, fully satisfy the requirement. Hundreds of teachers have experiences just as interesting and just as worthy of permanent record as many of those which have in recent years found a ready market in the form of magazine articles. In fact, there are as many ways of satisfying the essay requirement as there are different tastes and aptitudes among teachers; and every good teacher is sure to become a better teacher by undertaking from time to time some such composition.

The essay when presented must be accompanied by an outline showing the trend of the argument and the conclusions reached, and by a list of the books consulted in making the study. From the list of books the candidate will submit for approval two, upon which will be based the discussion that "will evince familiarity with educational literature bearing on the problem or study." As a special caution on the use of authorities in preparing the essay, it is recom-

mended that candidates indulge but little, if at all, in quotations. Quotations often produce the effect of needless and obstructive insertions in an otherwise straightforward and coherent discussion: and they also tend frequently to make an argument appear less sincere than if the writer had set it forth in his own style. But in case a candidate considers it necessary, at a particular point, to insert a quotation, he should at least attach a foot-note citing his authority by title and page. It may be added that such slight modification of another writer's sentence as the alteration of a word or two, does not relieve one of the obligation of acknowledging the source.

As a teacher's classroom work must be entirely satisfactory when he comes up in Promotional Examination, Part II, he may get a preliminary judgment on his teaching before he undertakes his essay or at any time during its composition. Under the rules governing advance in salaries, the concurrence of the superintendent with the principal in a favorable judgment, is required.

The formal report upon the actual class work of a candidate in this examination cannot be made until the other conditions set by the rule have been met; but the candidate is of course entitled to timely information as to whether his teaching is likely to be approved under the requirements for advance to the maximum salary.

The following are a few topics of papers in Promotional Examination Part II. They are taken at random: Self Governing History Classes (by a teacher in a departmental group); The Teaching of Reading to non-English-Speaking Children; Seat Work in its Relation to the Recitation; Departmental Teaching in a Three-Teacher Group; A German Primer (MS of a book actually prepared for publication by a teacher of first grade in an English-German School; it was fully illustrated and accompanied by a chart—much superior to book in use); Everyday Difficulties in Teaching Beginners Latin; Use and Abuse of the Study Period; Foreign Travel as an Aid in Teaching Geography; The Ungraded Class; The Service of Music in the Schoolroom; Two Months of Experiment in Combining Individual, Sectional, and Class Methods of Teaching; The Argument from Experience in Introducing High-School Subjects into the Upper Grammar Grades; Group Teaching; Flexible Grading; Use of Games in Teaching French and German to Children in Seventh and Eighth Grades (the teacher invented several games).

It is difficult to imagine work that would be of more value professionally to a teacher than that of preparing during her actual teaching of a given subject such a study of that subject as these topics suggest.

When the present salary schedule was adopted, teachers of five years' experience in the Baltimore schools who had been rated as good teachers by their respective principals for the three successive years immediately preceding were declared exempt from the English examination and were at once advanced to \$600 per annum. Those not so rated by their principals, ninety-seven in number, were required to make such improvement in their work as would justify a satisfactory rating before they could receive the increase; but they were informed that they, like the others, would receive it without examination whenever they secured the required record, and that all necessary assistance would be given them. Grade supervision became absolutely necessary at this point. In no other way, except by actual attendance at a training school, could any of these teachers have received sufficient assistance. To be effective in such cases the help must be expert and individual. It must fit the case. Accordingly, expert teachers selected as grade supervisors were assigned by the superintendent to represent him in learning the special needs of this class of teachers and in helping them in every possible way. The supervisors were left entirely unhampered by any special instructions from the superintendent. Each bore a letter of introduction, but as a matter of fact, the letter was seldom presented to the teacher, a few informal words bringing about freer relations. Nevertheless it has proved invaluable in cases where the personality of the teacher visited seemed to indicate that a formal business footing would be more agreeable to her.

The supervisors sought to indicate selection of subject-matter, methods of presenting it, and methods of discipline. They worked out entire plans for the use of the teachers, following this by helping them to work out other plans and, a later step, by sending suggestions for improvement of plans which these teachers sent to them by mail. This individual work was supplemented, whenever possible by a general teachers' meeting.

The result of this plan of working individually with teachers who had failed to make good under general supervision is that

sixty-eight out of the ninety-seven have been pronounced good by the same principals who had not previously felt justified in making a favorable report.

Too much cannot be said in commendation of the way in which these teachers as a body co-operated with the supervisors in working out special problems in their individual rooms—the frank statement of their own difficulties, the good will with which they joined the supervisors in meeting these difficulties, and the hard work they put on any indicated plan. It must be distinctly understood that, while they very naturally and properly wished for the increase in salary which improved work would bring, they were not limited by this view, but endeavored to attain a higher grade of work for its own sake.

Similar work is needed annually with a large number of the newer teachers who are endeavoring to secure a record in classroom work that will make them eligible to take Promotional Examination, Part I, and with an equally large number who are anxious about the “classroom demonstration,” which is a factor in Part II. These teachers wish to get assurance in advance of the examination that if they enter it, their record in classroom work will not hold them back. The grade supervision attempted thus far has been of this special nature; it has had some definite purpose to accomplish. Put upon this basis, grade supervision is a welcome help. The supervisor comes as a friend who has no other purpose than an endeavor to aid the teacher in reaching a desired goal.

The Chicago (Ill.) plan is as follows:

Teachers may be promoted to higher groups of salaries in any one of three ways: (1) by submitting evidence of the completion of the required study courses, either in the Normal Extension Department or in some degree-conferring institution, pp. 55-62; (2) by taking examinations in the study courses referred to above; (3) by taking the promotional examination. This examination, in the case of elementary teachers, consists of two papers, one in professional study, and one in some academic subject. In the case of principals, teachers in high schools, and teachers in normal practice schools, the examination consists of one paper in professional study.

Of these plans for the advancement of teachers, the one based

upon examinations is the oldest. When it was adopted it immediately caused a great demand for instructors in the various subjects in which examinations could be taken. In order to meet this demand, the Board of Education undertook a line of work which has been productive of most remarkable results, viz., that of normal extension. The plan in brief is this: The Board of Education agrees to furnish to any group of teachers of fifteen or more, in any part of the city, an instructor in any of the lines of work for which credit is given. Many of these classes meet in various halls in the central part of the city, the expenses of the rental of these halls being paid by the Board of Education. Other classes meet at the Normal School and in schoolrooms scattered throughout the city. These classes may meet at 4 o'clock in the afternoon of any school day excepting Monday, and at any hour between 9 and 12 on Saturday morning.

The first classes organized were largely institute classes of one hour each conducted chiefly on the lecture plan. It was found that the method and the length of the recitation period were not productive of the highest degree of efficiency from the standpoint of real scholarship. With the adoption of the plan for credits for work done in the normal-extension classes, the institute classes have been practically abandoned, the teachers themselves finding that they could get the work they needed more satisfactorily in the twenty-four recitations of one and one-half hours each than in the thirty-six lectures of one hour each.

The study class has certain advantages which are lacking from other forms of work undertaken for teachers, such as lectures, institutes, and grade meetings, in that the study class calls for vigorous application, serious, long-continued intellectual effort on the part of the teacher. In the lecture system of instruction, whether the lecture is a single one delivered by some great leader of thought or whether the lectures are arranged in a series as in the ordinary institute, the hearers are in a receptive attitude, while in the study class, those who undertake the work give forth to their teachers, the results of their mental activity. From the lecture, the ordinary listener carries away at best only a few suggestions and a certain amount of spiritual uplift. What one

has gained by hard study and has reproduced in oral or written form for criticism has not only become a permanent possession to the student but has also increased his mental power.

Rules of the Chicago Board of Education Relating to Promotional Examinations

CLASSIFICATION OF SALARIES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

There shall be a schedule of salaries for teachers in the elementary schools, which shall include two groups of salaries:

The first group of the schedule shall provide for additional advance in salary year by year for teachers who have reached the maximum salary of the second group, and who shall have complied with the conditions named below.

ADVANCEMENT FROM SECOND TO FIRST GROUP

The conditions governing advancement from the second to the first group of salaries for elementary teachers and head assistants shall be as follows:

Elementary teachers.—Teachers shall be promoted from the second to the first group by a vote of the Board of Education, upon a recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Those teachers shall be eligible for such recommendation and promotion who have served a year at the maximum salary of the second group, and whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, and who shall attain an average of eighty per cent. or above in the following tests:

a) An examination to test the work and interest of the teacher in the lines of professional study and training, including the subjects of school management, pedagogy, psychology, and the history of education.

b) An examination to test the work and interest of the teacher in any one of the following fields of academic work:

English language and literature; general history; physical science; biological science; foreign languages (Latin, Greek, German, French, Spanish); algebra and geometry; music; drawing;

manual training; household arts; geography (covering physical, mathematical, and commercial geography, with geology); physical culture (covering anatomy and physiology, theory of gymnastics, method of teaching, preparation of sets of exercises for different grades, and practical work).

The credit given to the professional examinations shall be twice that given to the academic examinations, and an average mark of eighty per cent. shall be required of all teachers passing these tests. The final mark shall be made up of three items, which shall receive equal credit, as follows:

- a) Efficiency mark for the preceding year, as equalized by the Board of District Superintendents,
- b) Mark obtained on the professional study paper of the promotional examination, and
- c) Mark obtained on the academic paper of the promotional examination, provided that no examination mark below seventy shall be considered, and provided further that, if a candidate divides the examination, the paper taken in the preliminary part shall not be credited in the final average unless the candidate has a mark of eighty or over on such paper.

Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and who possess an elementary principal's certificate, shall be admitted to the first group without examination. Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and possess a certificate to teach in the high schools, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing the professional examination only. Elementary teachers who have arrived at the maximum salary of the second group, who meet the other requirements of the schedule, and who possess certificates to teach music, drawing, German, household arts, or manual training, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing the professional examination only.

Teachers of physical culture, teachers of manual training, and teachers of household arts in elementary schools, teachers in kindergartens and teachers of the deaf, whose mark of efficiency is eighty or above, and who have reached the maximum salary in the

second group, shall be eligible, for admission to the promotional examination provided for the regular teachers in elementary schools, and upon passing it shall be promoted to Group I, it being understood that the academic subject chosen for the promotional examination by the holder of a special certificate shall not be the same subject as that in which the special certificate was granted.

The schedules of salaries for high-school teachers and for principals of elementary schools are arranged in three groups.

High-school teachers.—High-school teachers who have reached the maximum salary of the third group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above shall be advanced to the second group after passing an examination in methods of teaching the subjects in which they give instruction. High-school teachers who have served a year at the maximum salary of the second group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be advanced to the first group upon passing an examination in school management, psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education. No high-school teacher shall be eligible to the principalship of a high school who has not taken the professional examination required of candidates for the first group.

Principals.—Principals of elementary schools who have served a year at the maximum salary in the third group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be permitted to advance to the second group of salaries upon passing an examination in school management, and methods of instruction in primary and grammar grades. Principals who have served a year at the maximum salary in the second group, whose average in efficiency as shown by the records in the superintendent's office shall be eighty per cent. or above, shall be permitted to advance to the first group of salaries upon passing an examination in professional work, including school management, psychology, pedagogy, and the history of education; provided, that nothing in this schedule shall be construed as abolishing the restriction upon the salaries of principals on account of the membership of the schools, as provided elsewhere.

Teachers in normal practice schools.—The conditions governing the advancement of teachers in the practice schools from the second to the first group of salaries shall be as follows:

Teachers shall be promoted from the second to the first group by a vote of the Board of Education, upon a recommendation of the superintendent of schools. Teachers shall be eligible for such recommendation and promotion who shall have received the maximum salary of the second group for one year, and whose efficiency mark as a critic teacher shall be eighty-five per cent., or above, for the year preceding the promotional examination to which they shall be eligible for admission, and who shall obtain an average of eighty per cent., or above, in a promotional examination, which shall be based upon the work of expert critic teaching. Teachers who are transferred from any of the grades in the elementary schools to the practice schools, who have previously taken a promotional examination and are in the first group of salaries there, shall be placed in the first group of salaries for teachers in the practice schools.

Promotion of special teachers in the normal practice schools.—Salaries of special teachers of manual training, physical culture, and household arts in the normal practice schools shall be the same as the like positions in the other elementary schools and the schedule of salaries shall apply in these practice schools as in all parts of the city, except that such special teachers assigned to these practice schools shall be classed as critic teachers, and the promotion by examination from the second group to the first shall be according to the rules applying to critic teachers.

Study-Course Plan for Promotion

Teachers, head assistants, and principals who are eligible for promotion shall be allowed, if they so elect, to substitute five courses of study of not less than twenty-four lessons of one and one-half hours each, or thirty-six lessons of one hour each, for the examination requirements contained in the "Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education." Such courses of study offered for advancement to a higher group shall be pursued under the direction of the Chicago Normal School, or in some accredited institution of

learning authorized by law to confer academic degrees. Courses of study pursued in such degree-giving institutions may be accepted for credit toward advancement to a higher group, upon approval of such institutions by the principal of the Chicago Normal School and the superintendent of schools, but no courses of study shall be so accepted which are not superior in grade to the work of the Chicago public high schools. Such courses of study shall be deemed successfully completed when the proper official of the institution shall certify in writing that said course has been satisfactorily completed, and when such report has been approved by the principal of the Normal School and the superintendent of schools; provided, that if such course has been taken in a degree-giving institution, such official shall also certify that said course has been credited in said institution toward the attainment of an academic degree. The superintendent of schools and the principal of the Chicago Normal School shall have authority to take such steps as they deem necessary to satisfy themselves of the satisfactory nature and completion of these courses.

In determining the eligibility of elementary teachers for advancement to a higher group, credit shall be allowed upon the following basis, a general average of eighty per cent. being required:

Efficiency marks for the preceding school year, as given by the principal and one district superintendent, and equalized by the Board of District Superintendents, 5 credits; five courses of study successfully completed, one credit each, 5 credits; total, 10 credits.

Any teacher desiring to do so may substitute a written examination based on the work outlined in any one of the groups of subjects of study authorized under this rule for one or more of the five courses of study required, provided that the mark obtained in each of such examinations shall not be less than seventy-five per cent. in which case the teacher shall receive for said examination the credit belonging to the course of study for which it is substituted. Elementary teachers who comply with the other requirements of this rule, and who possess certificates to teach music, drawing, German, household arts, or manual training, shall be credited with two and one-half courses toward advancement to a higher group of salaries.

Teachers of physical culture, household arts, and manual training in the elementary schools, teachers in kindergartens, and teachers of the deaf shall be eligible for advancement to a higher group, upon conditions similar to those required of teachers in elementary schools, provided that any courses of study or examinations offered in subjects in which their special certificates were granted shall be of an advanced nature.

Teachers in high schools and principals of elementary schools shall be eligible for advancement from the third to the second group, upon conditions similar to those required of teachers in elementary schools, provided that no course of study or examination shall be accredited to any teacher in a high school or principal of an elementary school, unless said work is such as would be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts by an accredited institution authorized to confer said degree. Teachers in high schools and principals of elementary schools shall be eligible for advancement from the second to the first group upon conditions similar to those required for advancement from the third to the second group, provided that the courses of study or examinations offered for advancement to the first group, including any previously offered for advancement from the third to the second group, shall be equal in amount to a year's work such as would be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts by an accredited institution authorized to confer said degree. And provided further, that after June 30, 1907, no teacher in a high school or principal of an elementary school shall be eligible for advancement to the first group unless his efficiency average for the preceding school year is eighty-five or over for the year preceding that in which the examination was taken. In addition to the principal's efficiency mark each high-school teacher shall be given a mark by another supervisory officer.

The courses of study provided for in the above rule shall be elected from courses included in the following groups of subjects:

Education, including history and philosophy of education, school organization, science and art of instruction, special method, and educational ideals and classics.

Psychology, including introductory psychology, genetic and functional psychology, psychology applied to education, compara-

tive psychology, the psychology of special subjects, and the psychology of abnormal, sub-normal, and defective children.

Mathematics, solid geometry, college algebra, trigonometry, analytics, and calculus.

Physical Science, including physics and chemistry.

Geographical Science, including physical, mathematical, political, and commercial geography, geology, and geographic drawing.

Biological Science, including zoölogy, botany, physiology, hygiene, and nature-study.

Physical Education, including applied anatomy, the physiology of exercise, and gymnastic history, theory, and practice.

Music, including both vocal and instrumental music, elementary harmony and composition, and the history of music.

English Language and Literature, including grammar, composition, rhetoric, oral reading, the study of English and American authors, and of literary types, periods, movements, and history.

Foreign Language, Latin, Greek, French, German, or Spanish, including literature, grammar, composition, and the history of the language and literature.

History, including the history of the United States, the mediaeval and modern history of European countries, and the history of the ancient world.

Political Science, including civics, economics, sociology, and industrial history.

Art, including drawing, composition and design, color, the study of masterpieces of historic and modern art, the history and philosophy of art, constructive design, and mechanical drawing.

Manual Training, including work in wood, paper, cardboard, leather, metal, textiles, weaving, basketry, clay-modeling, book-binding, applied design, constructive and mechanical design, and the history and philosophy of manual training and the science of its materials.

Sewing, including drafting and pattern-making; cutting, sewing, fitting, constructing, and repairing simple garments; also the study of textiles and fabrics; and the principles of design, proportion, and color harmony.

Cookery and Dietetics, including the structure, composition,

preparation, and serving of foods; food materials and their values and uses; dietetics; and hygienic cookery.

No course of study or examination taken in the normal extension department prior to September, 1904, or in degree-giving institutions prior to passing the last examination for promotion in Chicago, or prior to the assignment in the Chicago public schools of the teacher or principal offering it, shall be accredited under this rule, excepting that any teacher who has not yet completed the promotional examination, but who has credit for one subject in that examination, shall be credited with two and one-half courses toward advancement to a higher group. A teacher or principal who has received credit under these rules for a course of study or examination shall not receive an additional credit for the completion of the same course of study or examination a second time. No teacher shall be permitted to enroll in more than two courses in any one school year, but this restriction shall not apply to courses taken in the summer term of the Normal School. At least one of the said courses or examinations offered by any teacher or principal for advancement to a higher group shall have been taken and satisfactorily completed within the two years next preceding the promotion of said teacher.

The fact that a high-school teacher is in the second group will be considered evidence that he or she has completed the requirements for promotion from Group III to Group II, namely, five courses of study of not less than thirty-six hours each.

For promotion from Group II to Group I the rule requires (including the five courses offered for promotion from Group III to Group II) one year's work of a grade which will be accepted in any approved degree-giving institution toward the degree of Master of Arts. One year's work in such institutions is usually understood to be nine courses of study aggregating about 430 hours.

Any course which is accepted by an approved degree-giving institution toward the attainment of the degree of Master of Arts will be accepted toward this promotion, whether it is technically listed in the graduate schools or in the senior colleges.

College courses aggregating a number of hours equal to the number of hours required in four courses of study of thirty-six hours each will be accepted as the equivalents of such courses.

The work offered should not, however, cover more than two general subjects.

The same ruling is held applicable to elementary principals.

One of the fundamental ideas of this promotional plan is that it tends to keep teachers in touch with modern scholarship. Because of this, attention is called to the provision to the effect that "At least one of the said courses or examinations offered by any teacher or principal for advancement to a higher group shall have been taken and satisfactorily completed within the two years next preceding the promotion of said teacher."

All regularly assigned teachers in the public, parochial, or private schools of Chicago are eligible to attend these classes. Substitutes and cadets are not eligible to enroll. Other teachers not connected regularly with any school are not eligible to attend.

Analysis of Conditions for Promotion

A. TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND HEAD ASSISTANTS

I. *Eligibility*.—A teacher must have an efficiency mark of eighty or over for the preceding school year, separate marks to be given by the principal and a District Superintendent, and the two to be revised by the Board of District Superintendents.

II. *Promotion*.—A teacher may take either (1) an examination, her final mark to be determined as follows: (a) efficiency mark as above, one-third, (b) mark on professional study paper, one-third, (c) mark on academic paper, one-third; or (2) five study courses of twenty-four lessons (one and one-half hours each) or thirty-six lessons (one hour each), to be pursued under the direction of the normal extension department, or in some institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees; five credits to be given for the teacher's efficiency mark, as above, and five credits for the successful completion of the five courses of study; no teacher to take more than two classes a year, and at least one course to be taken within the two years preceding promotion.

III. *Study Classes*.—Teachers may take their work either (1) in Normal Extension classes in the afternoons or on Saturday mornings from October to April; or (2) in the four weeks' summer term of the Chicago Normal School, classes to be given six

days a week, in two daily periods of one and one-half hours each; or (3) in any institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees.

B. PRINCIPALS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN HIGH SCHOOLS

I. *Eligibility*.—For promotion to the second group a principal or high-school teacher must have an efficiency mark of eighty or over for the preceding school year, and for promotion to the first group a mark of eighty-five or over.

II. *Promotion*.—A principal or high-school teacher may take either (1) an examination on professional subjects; or (2) five study courses in advanced work at any institution authorized by law to confer academic degrees.

The extent of the work which has grown out of this plan is partly shown in the following:

REPORT OF NORMAL EXTENSION CLASSES FOR WEEK ENDING DEC. 14, 1907

Subjects Study Classes	No. Classes	Attendance	Membership	Average attend- ance per class
Education.....	4	192	226	48
Psychology.....	6	177	196	30
Mathematics.....	2	39	46	20
Science.....	8	235	292	29
Geography.....	6	132	170	22
History.....	5	88	99	18
English.....	12	279	326	23
German.....	5	156	170	31
French.....	9	212	270	24
Spanish.....	3	34	53	11
Art.....	31	844	1045	27
Music.....	11	379	458	34
Physical education.....	4	224	254	56
Manual training.....	12	311	357	27
Cookery.....	3	87	87	29
Sewing.....	15	308	492	20
Industrial art.....	40	1289	1521	32
Kindergarten.....	2	57	72	29
Total.....	177	5043	6134	28

The following table shows the number of persons enrolled in extension classes at the close of the year 1906-7:

Elementary teachers	3,228
High-school teachers	46
Principals of elementary schools.....	28
Special teachers	29
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Total public-school teachers	3,331
Parochial-school teachers	21
Private-school teachers	21
Unassigned	11
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	53
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Total enrolled	3,384

Of the above the following number of persons are enrolled in two classes:

Elementary teachers	857
High-school teachers	9
Principals of elementary schools.....	8
Special teachers	5
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Total public-school teachers.....	879
Parochial-school teachers	4
Private-school teachers	4
<hr/>	
	8
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Total number of students in two classes.....	887
Total number enrolled in Extension classes during fall term of 1907-8	7,456

The total expenditure for this work for the year ending December 31, 1907, was \$16,032.18. This does not include cost of heat, light and janitor service in school buildings.

It will be noted from the above schedule that in the selection of studies those are most frequently chosen which have an immediate effect upon the school work. This has a good and a bad side. It shows the eagerness of the teacher to turn her work to account in improving the character of her teaching. It would be better in some ways, if her studies were partly those which took her out of her immediate lines of work, those which induced her to enter more scholarly fields of study.

In addition to the above classes many courses are being pursued

by teachers in the various colleges and art schools in or near the city.

MISCELLANEOUS

Certain other interesting phases of work are mentioned in the reports, some of which are the following:

State Inspector George B. Aiton of the Minnesota high schools recommends that the colleges and normal schools of a given state or a given section of the country arrange uniform study courses for the various grades of teachers in the country and the smaller cities and offer these courses through correspondence with the plan that these courses when satisfactorily completed shall be credited towards diplomas of graduation from normal schools or universities, or toward higher degrees.

A most important work is that undertaken by the Chicago Normal School in the publication of a bi-monthly magazine devoted to the consideration of various phases of modern educational thought. The magazine is edited by Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, principal of the Normal School. The articles are written by members of the Normal School faculty and educators of high standing from other institutions throughout the country. These articles form the basis for part of the study in the Normal School. The magazine is supplied to all of the city schools and in many of them furnishes material for the meetings of the principal with the teachers.

Teachers in the Horace Mann School, New York, and in a few of the other schools reporting may take professional courses in the near-by colleges without expense. It might be well for boards of education generally to agree to pay the tuition of teachers doing work in neighboring institutions of learning.

Several cities report the establishment of an eligible list for appointment. In Boston the appointments are made from the highest three on the list. In Chicago from the list taken in order of rank. In Chicago, in the case of experienced teachers, rank on the eligible list is determined by the average of the mark obtained in examinations with the mark obtained in substitute service. In the case of graduates of the Chicago Normal School, rank is determined by taking the average of the mark given for the two years' course in the Normal School and the mark

obtained in cadet or substitute service during the four months' probation.

In Boston, a teacher may, at the end of the seventh year of service, be given a leave of absence on half-pay for one year of study or travel. In Chicago, a teacher may obtain at any time, a year's leave (but without salary) for study, or leave for travel up to four months.

In a number of cities, the principals are required to record at certain intervals their estimate of the teachers under their charge. This has indirect influence on the work of the teachers and of the principals. It is necessary that the principal should continually study his teachers in order to help them, and the fact that he must record his estimate helps him in making his judgment. The principal is required to estimate the work of the teacher, in such points as ability to discipline, ability to teach, to co-operate with the principal and other teachers, scholarly habits, devotion to duty, etc.

Several cities report much good obtained from magazine clubs which make a study of the current educational literature.

Newark (N. J.) reports:

"Our Public Library is in close touch with every school in the city and supplies any needed material, prepares and classifies lists of books needed from time to time to carry out and elucidate the course of study. It also holds frequent school exhibits for the benefit of the teachers. It publishes from time to time valuable information, monographs, etc., for distribution among teachers."

TO SUMMARIZE

The work of making good teachers must be carried forward steadily because of the immaturity of teachers on entering the profession, the unevenness of their preparation, the singular lack of external stimulus connected with the practice of the profession, the complex nature of the work that must be intrusted to even the poorest teacher, the profound injury that results when the work is badly done, the constant change in methods and curriculum.

The making of good teachers is accomplished in two ways, by instruction on the part of the supervision, by personal study on the part of the teacher. Instruction and study may be concerned with information, with methods or with principles. The instruction which

comes through sympathetic supervision which suggests correct methods but does not impose particular ones, which points to principles underlying methods, which shows the application of principles to schoolroom practice, which arouses a love for excellence in work and in scholarship will ever be the most powerful of the agencies for good.

The instruction which comes from lectures, whether by great men or small, whether in ambitious lecture courses, in university extension courses or in ordinary institutes is of doubtful value. The hearer plays simply a passive, receptive, part; he listens to a brief summary of a more or less profound study of a given subject and knowing nothing of the background of the subject, this summary makes but little permanent impression. He goes away with a pleasing sensation of having learned something and the knowledge lasts but little longer than the sensation.

This training of teachers after they enter the work is deserving of much greater consideration than it has heretofore received. Many of the reports show an attitude of hopelessness regarding the mediocre teacher. To tolerate this attitude is to acknowledge defeat. It results in a cessation of effort to help on the part of the supervision and a placid self-satisfaction that tends toward mental death on the part of the teacher.

The school should be made the unit. The principal should be made responsible for the teaching of all subjects. The departmental plan makes this possible and provides for the teacher an incentive and an opportunity for scholarly preparation. There are undeveloped talents in every corps of teachers.

The principal must be acquainted with the work of the normal school and point out to young teachers the application of the principles of teaching, otherwise much of the work of the normal school will be lost. Normal extension classes have a similar office.

After wise supervision, the great essential for a teacher's life and growth is vigorous, systematic study. It is the duty of principal and superintendent to stimulate this study in every possible way. By example, by suggestion, by promotion, by increase of salary.

Promotion and increase of salary are the rights of the conscientious scholarly teacher and the expectation of these advantages

the greatest spur to the indolent. In the demonstration of this proposition lies the chief value of the present study. The various plans for attaining this result presented herein deserve the most careful consideration.

In small communities where the homes of teachers are near together, much may be done in study classes led by the superintendent or his assistants. As the city grows, the teachers in a given school or a given neighborhood may reside far apart from one another and the difficulty of gathering them together for systematic work increases. It thus becomes more and more important that contact with the supervision should come largely in school hours and that a teacher at other times should be left free to study when and where she can do so most conveniently. The amount of this study at any time need not, ought not be great, but it should be constant, thorough and ever advancing into widening fields.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. MINUTES OF MEETING HELD AT LOS ANGELES, JULY, 1907

Monday, July 8.—This session was called for 9:30 A. M., which proved too early an hour in N. E. A. convention week. A small number held an interesting round-table discussion at Symphony Hall, 232 South Hill St.

Several names were proposed for active membership, but owing to lack of data required by the by-law governing application and nomination for membership, the names were postponed for final action at the Washington meeting in February, 1908.

Wednesday, July 10.—At 2:30 P. M. about 100 people gathered at Symphony Hall, though a small proportion of these were members of the Society. The discussions were all on some phases of the relation of the kindergarten to primary education, and were interesting and excellent in character.

Those who took leading parts in the discussion were Ossian H. Lang, editor of the *New York School Journal*; Miss Isabel Lawrence, State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.; Miss Emma C. Davis, supervisor primary education, Cleveland, Ohio; and Miss Barnard, kindergartner of Oakland, Cal.

It was forcibly brought out that there is great need of the kindergartners and the primary teachers coming to a better understanding with each other regarding the work each ought to do for the child and how that work should be done so that the child may get a maximum of benefit in the primary grades from his kindergarten life and training.

II. FINANCIAL STATEMENT

This will be made at the business meeting on Wednesday, February 26.

III. THE PURPOSES, ORGANIZATION, AND WORK OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

Origin.—The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education (formerly The National Herbart Society for the Scien-

tific Study of Education) was organized at the Denver meeting of the National Educational Association in 1895. It was one of several characteristic movements in the history of education in the United States during the last decade of the nineteenth century. It was born on the one hand of a serious and deep-felt need of advancing the status of the science and art of teaching, and on the other hand of the progressive energy and earnestness of a group of the younger American educators. These leaders are well represented by the members of the first executive committee which held office from 1895 to 1899. They were Charles DeGarmo, president; Nicholas Murray Butler, John Dewey, Wilbur S. Jackman, Elmer E. Brown, Frank M. McMurry, Levi Seeley, C. C. Van Liew; and Charles A. McMurry, secretary. In 1901 the society was organized under its present name with plans and purposes somewhat modified and extended.

Purposes.—During its first stage the National Society “was organized for the aggressive discussion and spread of educational doctrines.” It desired to draw into its membership all teachers, students of education, and citizens who wish to keep abreast of the best thought and practice in education. During the second stage the original purposes have been continued, but some distinctive characteristics have been added. The present purposes may be briefly stated as follows:

1. To work toward a sound philosophic and scientific basis for educational thought and practice.
2. In connection with “1” to secure a union of the motive and spirit of both scientist and artist in all the work of the teacher.
3. To carry on study and investigation of current educational problems in a truly scientific spirit and in accordance with principles of scientific method.
4. To secure thoughtful, stimulating, and aggressive discussion of studies brought before the Society in its *Yearbook*.
5. To publish in its *Yearbook* a body of valuable literature on topics of current and permanent interest in education, and to give from time to time the status of educational opinion and practice touching some special field or problem.
6. To emphasize the idea that problems arising from one’s immediate work are usually the best starting-points for a study of education.
7. To promote the spirit and secure the advantages of co-operative fellowship in the work of education.

Membership.—Any person who will actively work for the above purposes is eligible to active membership. Active members have all the privileges and share the responsibilities of conducting the work of the Society. Active membership fee is \$3 a year. Application for active membership may be made through any active member or officer of the Society.

Any person in sympathy with the above purposes, and who desires to keep in touch with the Society's work may become an associate member by paying \$1 a year. Associate members get the *Yearbook*, circulars of information, etc., free, and have the privilege of attending meetings of the Society. Anyone wishing the publications regularly will find it a convenience and an economy to enroll as an associate member.

It is a by-law of the Society that any member wishing to discontinue membership shall so notify the secretary.

All fees and dues are payable to the secretary at the beginning of each year.

Meetings.—Two meetings are held each year; one in February at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, the other in July in connection with the annual convention of the National Education Association.

Yearbooks.—The Society's *Yearbook* is issued in two parts, Part I being sent to members a few weeks before the February meeting, and Part II shortly before the meeting in July. The *Yearbooks* are sent out in advance of the meetings to enable members to study them in preparation for discussion; thus discussion of greater effectiveness and value is assured.

The *Yearbooks* of the Society constitute a body of educational literature of acknowledged worth. The most of this literature is of permanent value to teachers. Some of it is almost indispensable to libraries and students of education. The *Yearbooks* are now bound up in sets, each covering five years, and can be had for the cost of associate membership for period covered.

Present problems.—There are several studies now before the Society:

1. Prof. Ellwood P. Cubberley's able monograph on the certification of teachers is being followed up by the work of a strong com-

mittee to promote standards and better administration of certification of teachers in the United States.

2. The work of the committee on vocational studies for college entrance will be continued. The colleges and high schools now feel the need of establishing some standards and schedules of entrance-credit valuation for the various vocational courses in secondary schools.

3. The study of the relation of kindergarten and primary education will be supplemented. The further problem is to show rather specifically what there is or ought to be in kindergarten education that the primary teacher ought to utilize in the elementary school to the child's greatest advantage.

4. The forthcoming *Yearbook* will present a study from data of wide range and careful selection concerning the relation of superintendents and principals to the improvement of their teachers. This study will especially show conditions and how this problem is met in cities where progressive superintendents have been seriously at work to find satisfactory solution of the problem. This *Yearbook* will be discussed at the Washington meeting in February, 1908.

5. The problem of secondary industrial education in the United States will be studied and presented in an early issue of the *Yearbook*. This phase of education has come to be looked upon as a national problem, both from the international outlook regarding the commercial merits of American products, and in the light of the great importance of progressive economic efficiency in the rank and file of our population.

Prospective program.—For some time the policy of the Society has been to deal with now one, now another of the most important and pressing current educational problems. There has been a growing feeling, however, that such an organization ought to define some fundamental and comprehensive problem that would give permanence and continuity to its work for several years. Such a line of work is here briefly outlined in a series of questions and theses as a basis for discussion:

1. What ideals of life (personal and institutional) in America are or ought to be national? This will call for a profound study of American life, historical and contemporary. There are or can

be supreme, inspiring, commanding ideals of American life in whose process of realization will be embodied and sublimated the higher value and meaning of America's vast natural resources and the creative energies of her people. These must be clearly defined and continuously propagated. In the light of these ideals the meaning and value of all the details of life and education must be estimated.

2. What should be the aim and fundamental characteristics in American education in order that these ideals may be most surely realized in the highest possible degree? This will call for the discovery, defining, and systematic organization of the philosophic and scientific bases of education. From such basic principles (all of which must be derived from the nature, needs, and ideals of the people, and the relation of the individual and society) will be determined the subject-matter and all details of the entire educative process.

3. In what respects and to what extent should American education conform to national standards rather than local, and vice versa? This calls for a clear understanding of the fact that the national total is teeming with individualistic tendencies with their specialized energies, and that these factors are the mainsprings of progress and the safeguards of freedom; but it also calls for an understanding of the importance of governing factors that secure co-operative unity, coherence, and justice.

There is perennial need of getting back to fundamentals in the work of education, and the educational compass must always be corrected by reference to the life-needs of the people—their legitimate necessities, their worthiest ideals, and their more abundant life.

LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR
THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

G. A. Axline, president State Normal School, Albion, Idaho.
 Zonia Baber, School of Education, Chicago, Ill.
 Frank P. Backman, Ohio University, Normal College, Athens, Ohio.
 William C. Bagley, State Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.
 R. H. Beggs, principal Whittier School, Denver, Colo.
 Ezra W. Benedict, principal of high school, Warrensburg, N. Y.
 Francis G. Blair, superintendent of public instruction, Springfield, Ill.
 Frederick E. Bolton, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.
 Frederick G. Bonser, State Normal School, Macomb, Ill.
 Richard G. Boone, editor of *Education*, Yonkers, N. Y.
 Mary D. Bradford, Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.
 Thomas H. Briggs, Jr., State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.
 Sarah C. Brooks, principal Teachers Training School, Baltimore, Md.
 Stratton D. Brooks, superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.
 George A. Brown, editor *School and Home Education*, Bloomington, Ill.
 John F. Brown, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyoming.
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 Martin G. Brumbaugh, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa.
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THE SEVENTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

THE CO-ORDINATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN AND
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

SUPPLEMENT TO SIXTH YEARBOOK, PART II

BY

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THE SUBJECT OF THE YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CLEVELAND
MEETING OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY, JULY 1 AND 2

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PREFACE

Part II of the *Sixth Yearbook* was devoted to an investigation of the relation between the kindergarten and the elementary school. The subject was taken up with a desire to further the effort to establish the kindergarten more firmly as a part of the public-school system by bridging the chasm which lies between it and the primary grades.

The following papers comprise the *Yearbook*: "Introduction," Ada Van Stone Harris; "The Psychologic Basis of the Kindergarten," Edwin A. Kirkpatrick; "An Interpretation of Some of the Froebelian Kindergarten Principles," Maria Kraus-Boelte; "Some Conservative and Progressive Phases of Kindergarten Education," Patty Smith Hill; "The Evolution of the Kindergarten Program," Harriette Melissa Mills; "The History of Kindergarten Influence in Elementary Education," Nina C. Vandewalker.

With the exception of the articles by Miss Harris and Miss Vandewalker the papers deal almost exclusively with the kindergarten side of the question. They do not touch the practical problem of how to co-ordinate the work of the kindergarten and the school though they prepare the way for an intelligent discussion of that question.

The present *Yearbook* attacks the problem directly and along four distinct lines. Superintendent Gregory approaches it from the side of Froebelian educational principles and maintains that the solution lies in the application of these principles in both kindergarten and school.

Miss Bender shows that the educational material used in kindergarten and primary grades and the aims to be sought have so much in common that there is no practical difficulty in the way of co-ordinating the work of kindergarten and school.

Miss Payne undertakes to show how the right training of teachers may further the work of co-ordination; and finally Miss Glidden sets forth the relation of supervision to the question at issue.

It is ardently hoped that these two *Yearbooks* which are in spirit and treatment one may contribute to the unification of child's education by helping to bring about a better understanding and closer co-ordination between the kindergarten and the elementary school.

I

WAYS AND MEANS FOR SECURING ORGANIC CONTINUITY BETWEEN THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PRIMARY SCHOOL IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHILD

JENNY B. MERRILL, PD.D.
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Some years ago in preparing the New York City exhibit for the Paris Exposition, it was decided to prepare charts summarizing the course of study in the eight elementary grades.

As the kindergarten preceded these grades in the city system, the question arose whether it was possible to summarize its procedure in such a way as to show the organic continuity between the kindergarten and the grades, or whether it was better to omit the presentation of the kindergarten from the charts.

As supervisor of our public kindergartens, I was consulted in regard to the matter. I accepted the opportunity in order to show what I had long believed to be true, namely, that an outline kindergarten course can be presented under the same general headings that are used for the first-year primary, technical kindergarten terms being suppressed.

I fully appreciated the validity of certain objections that the kindergarten world might raise to such an expression of the kindergarten, for it is certainly dangerous to use "the counters of knowledge" in reference to young children. One cannot write the play spirit which is the soul of the kindergarten into an outline course. The final result as it appeared upon the charts sent to Paris, with a few recent modifications, is as follows:

NATURE INTERESTS

1. Observation of the sun, the moon, the stars, the sky, the clouds, rain and snow, the sunset, the rainbow, shadows indoors and out-of-doors, long and short days, the seasons, etc.

2. Care of living animals, as a cat, a kitten, a rabbit. Picture books of animals used daily. Sounds of animals imitated. Observing life in the aquarium.

3. Care of the caterpillar, its cocoon, the butterfly or moth, ants, flies, spiders, bees.

4. Planting flower and vegetable seeds in springtime; fall planting; watering plants.

5. Naming plants, flowers, fruits, grains, autumn leaves, dried grasses and grains used in decoration, pictures.

6. Sorting and arranging seeds, shells and pebbles.

7. Observing nests and other homes of animals. Learning names of natural objects in the cabinet, as acorns, cones, chestnut burrs, milkweed pods, mosses, etc. (See "Language.")

NOTE.—The children handle and play with these natural objects, learning their names, colors and uses; there is no formal study of them.

8. Walks and excursions if possible.

LANGUAGE

1. Stories and conversations relating to life in the home, the doings of children, cleanliness and health, the life of animals and plants, the weather, the seasons, the holidays, etc.

2. Memorizing choice songs; also rhymes and jingles.

3. Attempts at reproducing simple stories.

4. Practice in distinct enunciation; a few phonic elements compared with sounds made by animals.

5. Special effort to enlarge the vocabulary by learning the names of things seen and handled in the kindergarten.

NUMBER AND FORM

1. Counting children, blocks, splints, shells, acorns, edges, corners.

2. Measuring sticks from one to five inches; measuring edges of squares and cubes.

3. Naming combinations of numbers in eight by building with the third and fourth gifts, extended in the use of the fifth and sixth gift.

4. Naming and combining halves and quarters in building and in paper-folding.

5. Suggestion of twos, threes, fours in weaving.

NOTE.—All work in number and form merely incidental.

MUSIC

1. Listening to instrumental music.

2. Singing to children.

3. Memorizing simple songs.

4. Marching to music; also recognizing and responding in movements to various rhythms.
5. Practice in sense games in recognizing notes that are alike and unlike, high and low.

HANDWORK

1. Building with blocks.
2. Modeling in sand and clay.
3. Designing and outlining with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds. (Limited.)
4. Drawing. Illustrative and object. Daily practice on the blackboard.
5. Painting. Flat washes of a single color, painting mainly natural objects having bright colors.
6. Weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats; paper mats and fringes (not less than one-half inch in width); free weaving with grasses or raffia.
7. Sewing with or without a needle. (Limited.)
8. Paper-folding. Simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles.
9. Paper-cutting and Mounting. (a) Free and illustrative; (b) Cutting to crease and line.
10. Construction of simple objects of interest to children as toys.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

1. Marching, skipping, running and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music.
2. Gymnastic exercises, imitating (a) familiar movements seen in the home and in the street; (b) movements of workmen; (c) movements of animals.
3. Finger plays.
4. Ball games, rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching.
5. Games for training the senses.
6. Games in a ring: (a) Trade games; (b) nature games; (c) social games; (d) impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs. (May be classified also under "Moral Training.")
7. Free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, dolls.

MORAL TRAINING

1. Appropriate conversations, pictures, stories and songs.
2. Punctuality and cleanliness enforced; care of room.
3. Acts of politeness and kindness encouraged and frequently suggested.
4. Instrumental music used to arouse and to quiet.

5. Care of animals and plants.
6. Observation of holidays and birthdays (especially children's and parents' birthdays).
7. Interest in the school, the flag on the school and in the kindergarten room, the streets, parks and monuments of the city, leading to simple thoughts and songs of our country.
8. Sympathy—pleasant tones of voice.
9. Consultation with parents.¹

In 1905 the Board of Superintendents adopted the following kindergarten syllabus, which presents in varied form the foregoing course with a few suggestions in method.

THE KINDERGARTEN

The following are the lines of work that should be included in kindergarten instruction:

Nature-Study.—In nature-study, the children should observe and care for animals and plant life, and should make daily observations of natural phenomena. The teacher should take the children on excursions to the parks and fields, and should encourage them to work in out-of-door gardens.

Language.—Stories and conversations in the kindergarten should relate to life in the home, the doings of children, cleanliness and health, life of animals and plants, the weather, the seasons, the holidays, etc. In story telling, the stories should be illustrated with blackboard sketches, pictures, and objects. The stories should be reproduced concretely through the medium of games and adaptable material; later, as an introduction to language, the stories should be reproduced orally with great freedom of expression. A special effort should be made to enlarge the vocabulary by teaching the names of all objects seen and handled in the kindergarten. A few rhymes and jingles should be memorized.

Songs.—In music, the children should be taught to listen appreciatively to instrumental music and to singing. In singing by the children, only such songs should be selected as unite expressive melody to appropriate words, and those in which the rhythm of poetry and music coincide. The voice compass should extend from E first line to E fourth space of the staff. Only soft singing should be allowed at any time, and great care should be given to enunciation and expression. Singing during marches and physical exercise is not advisable.

Games.—In physical training, the play and games should be interpretive and expressive of everyday life. They should lead to a control of the muscles, and to mental and social development. They should include marching.

¹ See *Kindergarten Review*, June, 1905, p. 630.

skipping, running, and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music; gymnastic exercises, in which the children imitate familiar movements seen in the home and in the street, movements of workmen, and movements of animals; finger plays; ball games, as rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching; games for training the senses; games in a ring, as trade games, nature games, social games, impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs; free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, and dolls.

Handwork.—The handwork is suggested by the kindergarten "Gifts and Occupations." It includes building with blocks (Gifts II to VI); designing and outlining common objects with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds; modeling in sand and clay; drawing, both illustrative and objective, with heavy crayons; daily practice on blackboard; painting both illustrative and object; (see paragraph on "Nature-Study" and on "Stories" for suggestions of pictorial subjects in drawing, painting, and modeling); weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats and in paper mats with fringes of inch and half-inch widths; occasional free weaving with grasses or raffia; sewing with or without a needle; paper folding of simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles; paper cutting and mounting, the cutting to be free and illustrative, or restricted to the crease and line; construction of simple objects by combining paper-folding with cutting and pasting.

No occupation work should be introduced which is injurious to the eye, such as fine perforating, fine sewing, and fine weaving. The work with the gifts and occupations should be partly directed and imitative and partly inventive.

Relation to the Primary Grades.—In order to co-ordinate the kindergarten and the primary grades the kindergarten exercises should be modified toward the close of the term in preparation for promotion. There should be periods of silent work and a greater proportion of independent work in the advanced group. The close connection between the kindergarten and the first year of school work is indicated by the topics under which the kindergarten occupations are classified in this syllabus.

It will be observed that the subjects in which the continuity of work is most apparent are: "Language," "Nature-Study," "Music," "Drawing," and the "Manual Arts."

1. *Oral language.*—In oral language there is a natural progress from the kindergarten through the grades. The story and the conversation are the great features which should be common to both.

The kindergarten recognizes the child as a talking being. He is not told from the moment of his first arrival that he "must not

“speak,” as has been and still is, the custom in some primary schools. Oral expression is the child’s right and is generally regarded in the kindergarten. The young child cannot learn to think without much talking. He must learn to inhibit speech gradually.

The child’s vocabulary is constantly enriched in the kindergarten by naming every new object he uses, and by memorizing songs connected with many plays. Recently the nursery rhymes have become very popular in the kindergarten as they are also in the first year of the elementary school. The oral productions of stories and close attention to phonics belong to the primary rather than the kindergarten age. The kindergarten child, however, plays with phonics in imitating the sounds of animals.

The language of the kindergarten child is also improved by giving him an opportunity to talk about what he has made, whether it be a building with blocks, a drawing, or any other piece of hand-work. While the object is present, and immediately after the close attention required in making it has been relieved, there is a natural outburst of expression from many children, while others, it is true, say nothing. To the latter the kindergartner should turn, asking a few simple questions about the completed piece of work.

The gradually acquired ability to inhibit speech has not been sufficiently considered by the kindergartner and primary teacher. Perhaps there is no other point of discipline in which the kindergarten child more frequently annoys the primary teacher. Doubtless there should be periods in the kindergarten in which the children understand that it is better not to talk. The children learn to listen quietly to the telling of a story. They should not talk while marching, exercising, changing rooms, waiting for material, resting, or while clothing is being distributed. They may be made to feel a real interest in these quiet times. Interruptions and explosions of speech are not to be punished in the kindergarten, but with judicious management and correction on the part of the kindergartner they always grow less and less. Toward the close of the term, our little ones enjoy “playing school” as the syllabus suggests, for a few days before promotion, or trying to be more quiet like the big children.

If over-talkativeness is met by both the kindergartner and primary teacher in this spirit of mutual helpfulness, it will soon disappear.

At the same time freedom to speak out should not wholly vanish, even in the upper grades. With very young children the vigor of the thought is often lost in the effort to hold back speech, if it is not entirely forgotten before permission is given for expression. Think what our own expression would amount to if we were compelled to wait on every and all occasions for permission to speak.

The kindergarten has done more for the primary child than is sometimes realized, by enlarging the vocabulary, especially in nouns and verbs, and by securing a natural tone which can only come through freedom of speech. Pestalozzi says in *Leonard and Gertrude*, "The child must speak well before he can read well." Thus we find that reading, in a sense, is begun in the kindergarten, although no written symbols are taught.

The interest in stories, in songs, and in pictures also paves the way for interest in the book, and the kindergartner sends the child forward anxious to learn to read if she has done her work well.

2. *Nature-study*.—The nature interests of the child, as expressed in our kindergarten syllabus, are identical with those of the first-year primary. Guided observations of the returning seasons, during the first primary year, will naturally be more effective than in the kindergarten, for the primary teacher has the previous work of the kindergarten as an apperceptive background. There may be a little more system, a little more naming of parts in the primary, although in the main general observation of the life and habits of animals and plants, rather than any detailed analysis, should continue later than the kindergarten age.

As in reading a book a second time, we get from it ideas which we did not get in the first reading, so the study of the yearly cycle of seasons and holidays made in the primary year is a distinct advance beyond the work done in the kindergarten although the same nature topics are continued.

In the city kindergartens, where opportunities for observation are very limited, kindergarten children learn to recognize in pictures, if not by real contact, twenty-five or thirty animals and possibly ten or more flowers and leaf forms. Every child plants at least one seed and is encouraged to watch the results. He plays with seeds and leaves and by sorting them, becomes familiar with differences in size, shape, and color. He names many common

5. Care of animals and plants.
6. Observation of holidays and birthdays (especially children's and parents' birthdays).
7. Interest in the school, the flag on the school and in the kindergarten room, the streets, parks and monuments of the city, leading to simple thoughts and songs of our country.
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Games.—In physical training, the play and games should be interpretive and expressive of everyday life. They should lead to a control of the muscles, and to mental and social development. They should include marching,

¹ See *Kindergarten Review*, June, 1905, p. 630.

skipping, running, and other rhythmic movements, accompanied by instrumental music; gymnastic exercises, in which the children imitate familiar movements seen in the home and in the street, movements of workmen, and movements of animals; finger plays; ball games, as rolling, bouncing, throwing and catching; games for training the senses; games in a ring, as trade games, nature games, social games, impromptu plays suggested by stories and songs; free play at recess, introducing a few common toys, as balls, tops, jumping ropes, bean bags, reins, and dolls.

Handwork.—The handwork is suggested by the kindergarten "Gifts and Occupations." It includes building with blocks (Gifts II to VI); designing and outlining common objects with tablets, sticks, rings, and seeds; modeling in sand and clay; drawing, both illustrative and objective, with heavy crayons; daily practice on blackboard; painting both illustrative and object; (see paragraph on "Nature-Study" and on "Stories" for suggestions of pictorial subjects in drawing, painting, and modeling); weaving with colored splints in heavy manila mats and in paper mats with fringes of inch and half-inch widths; occasional free weaving with grasses or raffia; sewing with or without a needle; paper folding of simple forms and objects developed from squares, oblongs and circles; paper cutting and mounting, the cutting to be free and illustrative, or restricted to the crease and line; construction of simple objects by combining paper-folding with cutting and pasting.

No occupation work should be introduced which is injurious to the eye, such as fine perforating, fine sewing, and fine weaving. The work with the gifts and occupations should be partly directed and imitative and partly inventive.

Relation to the Primary Grades.—In order to co-ordinate the kindergarten and the primary grades the kindergarten exercises should be modified toward the close of the term in preparation for promotion. There should be periods of silent work and a greater proportion of independent work in the advanced group. The close connection between the kindergarten and the first year of school work is indicated by the topics under which the kindergarten occupations are classified in this syllabus.

It will be observed that the subjects in which the continuity of work is most apparent are: "Language," "Nature-Study," "Music," "Drawing," and the "Manual Arts."

1. *Oral language.*—In oral language there is a natural progress from the kindergarten through the grades. The story and the conversation are the great features which should be common to both.

The kindergarten recognizes the child as a talking being. He is not told from the moment of his first arrival that he "must not

speak," as has been and still is, the custom in some primary schools. Oral expression is the child's right and is generally regarded in the kindergarten. The young child cannot learn to think without much talking. He must learn to inhibit speech gradually.

The child's vocabulary is constantly enriched in the kindergarten by naming every new object he uses, and by memorizing songs connected with many plays. Recently the nursery rhymes have become very popular in the kindergarten as they are also in the first year of the elementary school. The oral productions of stories and close attention to phonics belong to the primary rather than the kindergarten age. The kindergarten child, however, plays with phonics in imitating the sounds of animals.

The language of the kindergarten child is also improved by giving him an opportunity to talk about what he has made, whether it be a building with blocks, a drawing, or any other piece of hand-work. While the object is present, and immediately after the close attention required in making it has been relieved, there is a natural outburst of expression from many children, while others, it is true, say nothing. To the latter the kindergartner should turn, asking a few simple questions about the completed piece of work.

The gradually acquired ability to inhibit speech has not been sufficiently considered by the kindergartner and primary teacher. Perhaps there is no other point of discipline in which the kindergarten child more frequently annoys the primary teacher. Doubtless there should be periods in the kindergarten in which the children understand that it is better not to talk. The children learn to listen quietly to the telling of a story. They should not talk while marching, exercising, changing rooms, waiting for material, resting, or while clothing is being distributed. They may be made to feel a real interest in these quiet times. Interruptions and explosions of speech are not to be punished in the kindergarten, but with judicious management and correction on the part of the kindergartner they always grow less and less. Toward the close of the term, our little ones enjoy "playing school" as the syllabus suggests, for a few days before promotion, or trying to be more quiet like the big children.

If over-talkativeness is met by both the kindergartner and primary teacher in this spirit of mutual helpfulness, it will soon disappear.

At the same time freedom to speak out should not wholly vanish, even in the upper grades. With very young children the vigor of the thought is often lost in the effort to hold back speech, if it is not entirely forgotten before permission is given for expression. Think what our own expression would amount to if we were compelled to wait on every and all occasions for permission to speak.

The kindergarten has done more for the primary child than is sometimes realized, by enlarging the vocabulary, especially in nouns and verbs, and by securing a natural tone which can only come through freedom of speech. Pestalozzi says in *Leonard and Gertrude*, "The child must speak well before he can read well." Thus we find that reading, in a sense, is begun in the kindergarten, although no written symbols are taught.

The interest in stories, in songs, and in pictures also paves the way for interest in the book, and the kindergartner sends the child forward anxious to learn to read if she has done her work well.

2. *Nature-study*.—The nature interests of the child, as expressed in our kindergarten syllabus, are identical with those of the first-year primary. Guided observations of the returning seasons, during the first primary year, will naturally be more effective than in the kindergarten, for the primary teacher has the previous work of the kindergarten as an apperceptive background. There may be a little more system, a little more naming of parts in the primary, although in the main general observation of the life and habits of animals and plants, rather than any detailed analysis, should continue later than the kindergarten age.

As in reading a book a second time, we get from it ideas which we did not get in the first reading, so the study of the yearly cycle of seasons and holidays made in the primary year is a distinct advance beyond the work done in the kindergarten although the same nature topics are continued.

In the city kindergartens, where opportunities for observation are very limited, kindergarten children learn to recognize in pictures, if not by real contact, twenty-five or thirty animals and possibly ten or more flowers and leaf forms. Every child plants at least one seed and is encouraged to watch the results. He plays with seeds and leaves and by sorting them, becomes familiar with differences in size, shape, and color. He names many common

vegetables and fruits, and probably draws and colors them in painting lessons.

The kindergarten child further becomes acquainted with sand and shells, with clay and soil, through playful activities in modeling, and reaches the primary grades better prepared by all these experiences to listen to nature stories, having gained the power to image as he could not before the kindergarten had enriched his life.

3. *Music*.—The rote song is the common feature of interest in both kindergarten and primary. The kindergarten usually has an advantage over the primary grades in possessing a piano, and if it is well used the ability to listen to music with a little more intelligence is acquired. The ear being trained the primary teacher can secure better results. She may also criticize a little more in detail than the kindergartner and insist upon "good tone quality, distinct enunciation with well-opened mouths and mobile lips." All this will prepare the way for "simple, melodic exercises in tone relationship by imitation and dictation" in the latter half of the first year.

The rhythmic work in the kindergarten also relates itself most naturally to the musical exercises and also to the simple dance steps, now so popular in the advanced grades in connection with physical training.

4. *Drawing and the manual arts*.—For many years there was a distinct gap between the kindergarten and the primary along these lines. The geometric basis of the kindergarten was so marked in all its occupations that there could be no unity effected in schools in which an able art teacher was doing good work in the primary grades. Now that many kindergartners have rejected this geometric basis, relegating it as the art department does to a later period of development, there is a steady progress from the kindergarten to the primary in all handwork. Indeed in no other department is progressive continuity more fully experienced than between the kindergarten and the art department.

In the recently issued *Kindergarten Manual* of the City of Cincinnati, occurs the following paragraph on drawing:

Drawing is to be given five to seven minutes daily in connection with any period that may seem wise. It is under the supervision of Mr. William H. Vogel, who will from time to time outline the work with the kindergartners. In general it should be of such a nature as to afford the child the means of

giving graphic expression to the thoughts and impressions received in his daily experiences. Much work at the blackboard is desirable, and all table work should be done on a large scale.

In like manner, I have been aided for the past ten years by our supervisor of drawing, Dr. James P. Haney, in relating the kindergarten drawing to the primary. The development in drawing has in this way become continuous from kindergarten through the grades.

In the kindergarten, as in the first year, drawing and cutting are mainly illustrative and are used as a means of expression. Professor O'Shea says: "Before the child enters school he has used drawing as a means of conveying his thoughts to others, and his interest in it is determined wholly by the use to which he is thus able to put it." We are then carrying this interest in graphic expression forward from the home through the kindergarten and into the school. I often wonder why kindergartners have not been guided more fully by Froebel's commentary on "The Little Artist," which sets forth this phase of drawing in such an ideal fashion:

The things a child can make,
May crude and worthless be,
It is his impulse to create
Should gladden thee.

"Drawing," says Froebel, "attests the mind's creative power and offers a seemingly simple form for its exertion."

In the kindergarten it has been our rule, as in Cincinnati, to have drawing every day, and no occupation is more heartily enjoyed nor does any furnish a surer test of progress on the part of the kindergarten child.

Let me quote from the *Third Yearbook* of the supervisors of manual arts an article by Miss Julia Crenmins:

As a means of instruction, illustrative drawing has an educational and social value. It helps the child to think creatively instead of receptively. By it the habit of mental imagery is formed. It stimulates thought by opening an additional channel for thought. It promotes the power of connected thinking. It serves as an evidence that an image has been clearly defined before the mental eye: Such drawing creates interest in social surroundings. In illustrating personal experiences the child soon realizes how imperfect are his pictures of the things that happen daily. In an endeavor to gain clearer impressions he forms a habit of close observation.

Free cutting is an occupation closely allied to illustrative drawing. In fact we have learned by experience to introduce it by allowing the children to cut out their own drawings. This seems ✓ to give them courage to cut into the paper, and they secure satisfactory results sooner.

The occupation of folding is common to both the kindergarten and primary. It is one of the occupations which the primary has accepted from the kindergarten. The course in paper folding in kindergarten training schools has always been an extensive one and it is well that much of the work has passed on into the primary.

Constructive work in paper is also common to both the kindergarten and primary grades, and may be introduced after the children have acquired a little power in cutting, folding, and pasting. The kindergarten occupations have heretofore been limited too much to flat work. The child prefers the use of three dimensions. Constructive work in stiff paper is not difficult for children of kindergarten age. It precedes similar work in cardboard and less pliable material.

The use of building blocks and modeling in sand and in clay also meets the need of working in three dimensions. The ability to interpret pictures can be increased by artistic representations in the sand table. One of our kindergartners, Miss Rose Archer, has systematically worked out the cycle of the year in artistic scenes, following them with blackboard sketches which illustrate the same subjects. Such work in the kindergarten lays the best possible foundation for the work in elementary geography and thus tends to "organic continuity."

To represent properly such scenes, toy houses, animals, and figures (in proportion) are essential. The introduction of toys in the kindergarten is considered by some kindergartners as an innovation, but the children are often aroused to play more intelligently with kindergarten material by the addition of a few toys.

Some kindergartners are using toys to incite the children to build with a definite purpose, as, for example, a child may be given a toy animal, and the suggestion made to build a stable or barn, or other appropriate shelter. Toys have their place also in the primary class as they furnish some of its best models for object drawing and construction.

Having discarded the sequence of the gifts, many kindergartners are even blending the kindergarten materials to advantage. Thus splints and tablets may be used occasionally with blocks. For example, a stove having been built with the blocks of the fifth gift, circular tablets may be placed upon it to represent stove lids. ✓ They may also be used as toy dishes. Splints may be used for tracks, or for the span and approaches of a bridge. Seeds and colored beads may be used for vegetables and fruits, on a stand built of blocks. All the various boxes for building gifts may be combined as the child needs them.

The occupations of sewing and weaving which have been developed very fully in the primary grades are being used less and less in the kindergarten. It is true that children generally delight ✓ in these occupations, even in the kindergarten, but as the physicians are continually warning us against them on account of injury to the eyesight, we are crowding them out, and yielding them to the domestic art department.

Instead of the geometric sequence of gifts and occupations, as commonly recited in kindergarten terms, we consider all the plastic materials of the kindergarten simply as a means of expression, and believe that the children will gain knowledge of form, color, number, position, and quality incidentally through use. In this way the kindergarten is gradually allying itself to the approved ✓ methods of the primary schools, in which less and less work is required in form and number in the first school year.

5. *Games*.—The introduction of games into the primary school as a means of physical training, is one of the recent and most valuable means of securing organic continuity between the kindergarten and school. At present there is more or less interchange of games between the kindergarten and first year, but it must finally be recognized that simple plays and those avoiding competition are best suited to kindergarten children.

The kindergarten child needs to express himself through his body in dramatic play, more than do the older children, who gradually acquire a love for more formal, organized games. It is, however, also true that the dramatic instinct is also being utilized throughout the grades, although not in games, but rather in the connection with reading, history, and literature.

Group work which has become more and more popular in the school has always found its place in the kindergarten. The ages of children usually differ more widely in the kindergarten than in the well-graded class and hence the kindergarten has lent itself naturally to the grouping of children. Group work has, however, often been neglected in the kindergarten. There has been of recent years a revival of working in groups in the kindergarten as well as in the primary school. In both kindergarten and school this method should be encouraged as it helps in developing individual initiative and assists the teacher in knowing the child.

The kindergarten has always stood for a close connection with home interests. It has accomplished much by means of visitation and mothers' meetings. While it is possibly true that this work is most essential at the beginning of school life, still it is pleasing to note that the "parent-teacher associations" are extending upward through the school.

The desire to secure organic continuity between kindergarten and the school in matters of discipline must not lead to an undue forcing of the kindergarten child into school habits.

Dr. Hall warns us that "a school system which intensifies rather than shelters the young is a forcing machine and a perversion of the purpose and etymology of the word school."

When all teachers recognize that "the field of play is as wide as life and its varieties far outnumber those of industries and occupations," when, I say, all teachers subscribe to this doctrine, then kindergartners will not be obliged to guard so jealously as they have in the past, the right to play.

It is this determination of the kindergarten to play freely and fully that has most often made it clash with school discipline. But the widening of the belief in the educational value of play will tend to prevent misunderstandings in the future.

As a summary of ways and means to secure continuity between the kindergarten and school I suggest the following kindergarten creed:

A KINDERGARTEN CREED

I believe that children need each other's society for their highest development.

I believe that from four to six or seven years of age it is usually best for boys and girls to play together in groups for two or three hours daily, under adult guidance, away from their homes, in kindergartens.

I believe that play is the natural means of developing the child's body and mind.

I believe that play may be so conducted as to lead gradually into the more restricted life of the school. I also believe that the social and communal interests of the kindergarten period should extend upward into the school.

I believe that the physical care of the child demands especial attention up to the seventh year, and hence, I believe that it is a question whether young children should be called together unless they are provided with light, airy, and sunny rooms.

I believe that every possible effort should be made to keep children in touch with nature and natural objects.

I believe that simple garden work and the care of animals should be especially encouraged.

I believe that the best materials for play in the kindergarten are indicated by Froebel.

I believe that the most important of these are balls, building blocks, sand, clay, paper, crayon or brush, and scissors.

I believe that constructive play with these or other plastic materials should follow naturally a few simple industries and that such play should develop gradually into work.

I believe that informal acting or playful dramatizing should precede the formal games of the kindergarten.

I believe that pictures, stories and songs should be used freely at this age. They have long been recognized as potent in child training. If well selected they will carry the child beyond his environment and help him in forming ideals.

I believe periods for free or undirected play essential in the kindergarten, not only for the child but also for the kindergartner, to aid her in studying the children. I believe that home playthings, as the doll, the doll-house, a few simple toys, and picture books, are desirable in the kindergarten as incentives to play and to social life.

I believe that the child needs the child, and that the social life of the kindergarten is one of its most valuable features; that the communal life at this age enlarges human relationships at a time when the child needs to find his "social level," and provides a better atmosphere for moral training than the home alone can provide.

I believe that during this early period by all the means that have been mentioned, the child is gathering "experience-knowledge" of his environment and of his fellows, which will prove the best possible basis for school life and for all future development.

II

THE NECESSITY OF CONTINUITY BETWEEN THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. THE PRESENT STATUS ILLOGICAL AND UNFROEBELIAN

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In passing from the kindergarten to the primary school there is a break. Do what you will to soften the change, to modify the break, it still remains a break. Three general methods of dealing with the difficulty have been employed: (1) To provide a connecting class to take the child out of his kindergarten habits and introduce him to those of the primary school; in the words of some teachers, "To make him over." (2) To modify the kindergarten to make it more nearly resemble the primary school. (3) To modify the primary school to make it more nearly resemble the kindergarten. To these might be added a fourth: To do a little of each.

Now if anything is clear in the Froebelian doctrine it is this, that there are no breaks in human development and should be none in education. The human being shows wide variations when we compare him with himself at different periods of his life, but these changes always take place gradually. This is Froebel's language: "Sharp limits and definite subdivisions within the continuous series of the years of development, withdrawing from attention the permanent continuity, the living connection, the inner living essence, are therefore highly pernicious, and even destructive in their influence." And the truth is not only Froebelian, it is self-evident, it is common-sense.

It seems to the writer, therefore, that the fact of the break just noted is not only un-Froebelian, it is unpsychological, it is not common-sense. It indicates that we have abandoned the simple principles of Froebel, of psychology even, and have intruded ourselves into the problem. We have introduced an artificial consideration

somewhere or we should not have this glaring absurdity staring us in the face in our school system.

For, let us note. We are not to "make the child over;" that is precisely what we must not do. In succeeding in making the child over we do him an injury even if he were all wrong before, for Nature doesn't make things right in that way. The suspicion might arise in such cases whether it is not the teacher who needs to be made over.

And let us note further, in view of this thought of continuous development that the primary school is not to approximate the kindergarten. Who had a right to make the kindergarten a standard? It would be a standard, by the way, exceedingly hard to define in the divergent practical aspects it now presents to the educational world. And still further, it is equally illogical to speak of approximating the kindergarten to the primary school.

There is no kindergarten, there is no primary school in any such sense as the terms are understood in such a discussion. There is but one fact that is real and that is development. The artificial terms which we apply to distinguish various stages of progress in this development should not denote different things but different phases of the same thing. But the terms kindergarten and primary school imply a sharp distinction, a sharper distinction indeed, than that between the first and second grades of the primary school. This is not the only place in the school course where a sharp dividing line is drawn as a result of the use of terms, where no such line should be. A striking example is to be found in the attitude of high-school teachers toward grammar-school boys on their entrance into the high school. The friction that suddenly develops at this point and the failure of the entering students both as regards discipline and scholarship, are well-known to teachers. The explanation is simple. The student hasn't changed his identity in entering the high-school, but the high-school teacher thinks he has just because he has given him a new name.

Let us start then with this proposition, that to standardize an artificial thing as a basis of comparison with another artificial thing is unpedagogical and illogical. This postulate having been grasped, the logical course becomes very clear and simple. The standard for all education, by whatever artificial designation we describe any of

its phases, is the immutable law of child development. The kindergarten is logically but an expression of this law for one period of school life and the primary school, grammar school, high school, and college, expressions for other periods. We have claimed far too little for the Froebelian doctrine when we have timidly advocated its application to the primary school. It is not only applicable to the whole of education, it is its inexorable law. In the following discussion, no attempt, therefore, will be made to confine Froebelian thought to primary education.

Let us assume that the law of child development is conveyed with reasonable adequacy in the Froebel philosophy. This assumption is near enough to the truth—indeed it is wonderfully near the truth. What are the lessons to be derived concerning the conduct of the kindergarten and the subsequent education of the child?

Let us consider first the post-kindergarten period, the period of the so-called grades. In articles on this subject in previous *Yearbooks*, a most optimistic state of mind is evident. The influence of the kindergarten on the primary school has been taken for granted, and the spirit of the primary school has been shown to have changed for the better and along the lines of Froebelian thought. Besides this, the kindergarten material has entered the primary schools. The writer is far from entering into full participation with this optimism. One may gratefully and gladly concede that such a change in spirit is evident but must repress his transports when he begins to realize to how limited an extent the change has taken place. The superintendent who longs for the Froebel millennium must sadly admit that many a primary teacher has received but little of the divine fire, and that in the cases of many more, the new spirit is at best a modifying influence and by no means a dominating influence. In the grammar schools, the picture is darker, and in the high school, almost illegible. Again, and this is the important consideration, the influence which has brought about the happier condition is, so far as the teacher is concerned, not consciously that of the kindergarten. It may be, and to some extent, doubtless is, indirectly that of the kindergarten, but the teacher who is affected by it, doesn't know it. This is the same as to say that the vitalizing Froebelian thought which has done so much for the kindergartner has done little for the primary teacher

and that little in a roundabout way. The real thing is clearly seen when the kindergarten trained girl enters the primary or grammar school. No greater blessing has come to the schools in these later years than the entrance of the kindergarten-trained teacher into the grades. But often, even she sees but dimly the beauty of the gospel she has learned, except as it is revealed in orthodox kindergarten lines of expression. Nevertheless, the possibilities of such young women under a sympathetic training are most hopeful. They make our best primary teachers. It is a question, however, whether the introduction of the kindergarten material into the primary schools has not been productive of as much harm as good. These materials have no value in themselves. They receive a value in the kindergarten because they furnish a medium for the expression of a Froebelian thought. But to the primary teacher, they have no such value, and to the kindergartner acting as a primary teacher, they are likely to lose their meaning when divorced from their standard use. Such materials have become the occasion of a frightful waste of time, as all the materials must that are used without a comprehension of their meaning. In many cases they are relegated to the time allotted to the out-and-out idling known as "busy work."

It can never be said that the principles of Froebel are acting on the school until they act directly on the teacher. And it must further be kept in mind that the kindergarten materials and the kindergarten methods have nothing whatever to do with the matter. The methods and materials will be determined by the facts of the case. It by no means follows that because the blocks and tablets and zephyr furnish an adequate means of expressing a Froebelian principle at the sub-primary or so called kindergarten age, the same material is its adequate expression in the fourth or seventh grade. The method and the material vary, the material may even disappear, but the Froebelian principle is evermore regnant. The logical mode of procedure would seem to be: given a principle, what is the proper method or medium for its expression at this or that point in the child's progress? Let us look at some of the violations of such an obvious principle. Their grossness, importance, and frequency are startling.

One of Froebel's precepts to which we all ought to give heed is in substance, that all education should be "following," not "prescrip-

tive." It is a fair inference from this law that all methods should be based upon data afforded by the children themselves. It would seem that when children in large numbers, here, there, everywhere, resist a subject or method, that that subject or method is wrong at that stage of progress. And, conversely, when the children receive a subject or phase of a subject gladly, that that subject or phase of the subject is clearly indicated as right. Indeed, one might deduce a law regarding the appropriateness of subjects, or the time or method of their introduction, to be known as the law of the least resistance. Now what are the facts?

How long did it take us to learn that arithmetic has no place in the earlier grades? For years and years the children had said so. They resisted the subject, learned it with the greatest difficulty, and forgot it with the greatest facility; their acquirements were insignificant, and if the subject was omitted in the first grade the children were as far along at the beginning of the third grade as if the subject had been taken for two years. From a Froebelian point of view this amounts to proof, and the educational world is gradually accepting the only possible conclusion. Why were we so slow? Merely because we evolved the appropriateness of arithmetic from our heads and not from the facts of childhood. The latter is the Froebelian method, and in the Froebelian structure the principle on which it rests is basal.

Conversely, why have we been so slow in learning that little children are the best language students in the world, that early childhood is the golden time for language? And specifically, how slow we are in learning that the child's speech is oral speech and that written speech is an exotic! In oral speech the child is fluent and idiomatic, and reveals himself. In written speech he is artificial and clumsy and does not reveal himself. He comes to school with plenty of language; we put a pencil in his hand and freeze him up. The written speech will develop, but not yet, and very slowly. But we don't derive our courses of study from children but from our own self-consciousness. It would seem that to many superintendents, in preparing courses of study, it has never occurred that there are children in the world who could be seen if it were thought that that were really necessary.

What but a perverse or ignorant disregard of Froebel's law, a

disregard of the richest field of data, the children themselves, will explain the vagaries of nature-study? Anyone who will read the curricula on this subject for the last twenty years will come to the conclusion that for the most part the facts of childhood, children's loves and tendencies, were the last thing thought of. Slowly, we are tending in the right direction, but not from any consciousness that the children must determine the course of study, which is the Froebelian law. To give an example and, at the same time, be specific, the love of children for living things has been ignored or catered to accidentally in the primary and lower grammar grades, and is now very slowly receiving consideration.

And finally, for these illustrations might stretch on indefinitely, we offer an illustration of a detail which may stand for a great many details. Why do teachers try to teach the rationale of carrying in subtraction to very young children? A very little knowledge of childhood would show that the average child has not the faculties for its comprehension. He at last, indeed, arrives at a parrot-like understanding of the process and that understanding remains perfunctory. The explanation and drill thereon take many days, and the child doesn't subtract a bit better for knowing the reason. He takes the process readily but resists the explanation. This is not wonderful. Children must do many things for which an explanation is impossible. What about learning to walk, for example?

We have considered but one Froebelian law. But let anyone apply just this one law to our schools and trace the long line of violations in courses of study, in the time at which subjects are presented and the special method of presentation. One need not stop at the primary school. He may pursue his investigation through the grammar school and the high school. Indeed he will find the high school a very Golconda of false methods from the point of view under consideration. Suppose we were to open our eyes to the facts of boyhood and girlhood and humbly be guided by them, and base our teaching and courses of study upon them. A genuine revival in teaching would come to pass. Without trying to approximate the kindergarten we would be obeying Froebel. And what more can the kindergarten do?

In further illustration of this broad treatment of the elementary

school from a Froebelian point of view, let us think of another Froebelian law—that of self-activity. In the usual discussions of this law we seem to be unable to see in it anything else than manual training. But its application throughout the course of study is universal and its violations are so numerous and disastrous as to suggest the suspicion that the principle enters to the most trifling extent into school administration. An example or two must suffice.

Let the following test be applied by any teacher: Hand a set of compositions back to a class without indicating the errors and demand that the errors be not only corrected but discovered, and that the compositions be rewritten. Continue to hand back the same compositions indefinitely until all errors are discovered by the writers, and a composition, perfect in view of the state of the child's progress, is evolved. Persevere in this treatment one year. The following phenomenon will then be revealed: whereas the pupils at the beginning could not produce a perfect composition without many efforts, at the end of the year they offer the desired product as a rule with one or two efforts. The same course of treatment applied to arithmetic, algebra, German, Latin, or anything else, will reveal the same phenomenon. The pupil reaches the upper grades of the grammar school and the high school, it is claimed, weak in the technique of writing, and feeble as regards thought. In passing, why should his thought not be feeble? So much mental effort must be expended on form that he has none left for thought. If technique could ever become automatic, his whole effort could go out to the thought. But technique becomes automatic under present conditions very slowly, and never reaches any high standard, unless, indeed, it becomes automatically wrong. That is a result that can be attained with surprising rapidity.

The explanation is very simple. The self-activity of the child in the process summarized above is, at the beginning, of the most modest kind. The fact that he goes on day after day doing things that he knows are wrong, indicates how little real effort he is putting forth. But why not demand the full quota of his self-activity, as indicated above! Why shouldn't the child be feeble? Why shouldn't the results be inconsequential? The teacher assists when there should be no assistance, he explains when there should

be no explanation. He interferes with the child's right to do things himself, he meddles, and this he does all the time and in a systematic manner as if with a settled theory as to its propriety. When the malign theory is persisted in year after year, the tendency is to necrosis of the will. Some high schools make one think that this disease has actually set in.

The law holds equally good in oral language. The pupil has a right that no one shall tell him his mistakes unless he doesn't know that they are mistakes. Every time a teacher shows a child his error in anything, she violates the law of self-activity and retards his education. And the law holds good in the learning of things as well as in their practice or drill. No teacher has a right to help a boy to understand an application of percentage which he can understand without help. It is a wrong done to the boy. He is defrauded of the right to exert his own powers, through which exertion alone, in Froebel's opinion, he can be educated. It is surprising even among the very little children, the first-grade children, how much they may do for themselves. We teach them reading, of course, but if in addition to the formal teaching we give the child unlimited facilities for interesting and appropriate silent reading, put him in a bath, so to speak, of silent reading, he will soon demonstrate how unnecessary is much of our teaching and if unnecessary, then of course, how injurious. The formal teaching will go on, but it will rapidly change its character, for the children have become partners in the business. But this lesson is learned by but few teachers. The formal reading lesson appears in the upper grades as a method of teaching reading. Indeed we are for ever teaching reading. We seem never to be able to say we have taught it. The teaching of the trick of reading from the printed page should have been taught long ago. The oral reading lesson has its function in the upper grades, but that function is not to teach children how to read.

There is but one remedy for the widespread evil which we are now considering and that is the Froebelian remedy. The child must be forced back upon himself. He must have just as much help as is necessary to place him in a position to help himself and no more. This amount varies with the child, but its limit is in any case a sacred limit over which we pass at our peril. The teacher must more and more withdraw himself. He must stop meddling.

There is no educational discipline but self-discipline and in its final resolution there is no education but self-education.

The application of this idea to moral education opens up a fascinating field of thought but we can only hint at it here. Briefly, if by discipline we make it impossible to do wrong, we at the same time make choice impossible. Activity implies resistance. If there is no possibility of resistance (that is, if it is impossible to do wrong) there is no exercise, and if there is no exercise there is no growth.

Here again, the widest field for the thought is opened up. Eliminate the violations of the law of self-activity and the public schools would not know themselves. But then we would be doing only what every true kindergartner proposes to herself. The child leaves the kindergarten where self-activity is always predicated of him. He enters the grades where self-activity is, to a very large extent, an unknown quantity, and is likely to be accidental when it enters.

The limits of this article will permit but one more development of the main thought, the broader treatment of the public school from the Froebelian standpoint. We call attention to the beautiful thought of Froebel to which the keyword is the adjective "conscious." In its broader treatment it means that the child is to be made conscious of his divine possibilities. Not only must we know his power but he must know it. Unless he is conscious of his power there is no adequate education. A child can't develop what he doesn't know he possesses. But too frequently it is not power that is emphasized but failure. In the marking of a language paper, for example, is the emphasis not placed on the errors? But why not also on the successes? Which will stimulate a boy the most, to know that he can do a thing or to know that he can't? Do we like to do things we succeed in doing or those we fail in doing? Is the perpetual emphasis on error likely to make a boy so believe in himself that he will resolve to conquer all obstacles? In morals the truth shines clearly. If a child resists a dozen temptations to do wrong and fails at the thirteenth, we punish him for that failure. There's where the emphasis is placed. His successful efforts to resist temptation go for nothing. But there is where the emphasis belongs, according to Froebel. With us his failure is all that counts. Surely my duty is to make him conscious of his power

when he succeeds. He will try the harder next time. This does not eliminate punishment, but it eliminates most of the conditions which make punishment necessary. So in the curriculum. The earnest, honest effort is the important fact, for herein lies the consciousness of power; the error is the subordinate matter. The subject is a fascinating one. It is a subject which teachers have studied only in its elements. That the principle involved dominates our educational practice is far from the truth. When it does, not only will our methods of teaching be revised but our marking systems will not compare child with child, for the premium will be based on the only possible comparison, that of the child with himself. In that happy day our merit lists will not exalt one child and humiliate another, and the "*cum laude*" on the high-school commencement program will disappear with all other ingenious contrivances for emphasizing partial defeat. We will then learn that all methods which make a child believe that he can't are vicious.

One specific illustration of this great law of self-revelation, but in another field from the foregoing, must suffice for this part of the discussion. There is an interesting statement in Froebel's discussion of the teaching of language, to the effect that through reading man attains personality. The substance of the discussion is that through reading the soul is raised into self-consciousness. But who can watch a reading lesson in many a primary grade and believe that through it the child's soul is attaining self-consciousness? The monotonous expression, the apathetic looks of the children, the fitful attention and feeble interest, all indicate what is being attained: a slowly developing power to translate characters in the book into speech. But the vital fact of reading as an art whereby the child discovers himself, is practically, if not absolutely, absent. The teacher looks for it in a hopeless way or not at all. The child must discover his personality, not through words or even through the meanings of words, but through the thought of the story. Therefore the story is the principal aim of the teaching, the trick of reading the subordinate aim, for the former is the reason for desiring the latter. And there is many a teacher who would stare if she were advised to tell or read the story frequently before developing the words.

And this perfunctory treatment of reading in the earlier

grades is continued in the later grades in a most absurd manner and is paralleled in the other subjects of the course. The Froebelian idea is that the study is of value, not in itself, but in view of its reaction on the divine essence. But much of the teaching that we see places the emphasis on the subject in innocent oblivion of the existence of any such thing as a reaction. How else is the dominance of the fetish known as arithmetic to be explained? Here matters are frequently taught, not because of their reaction or even in view of their subsequent usefulness, but just because they have always been taught. For example, the teacher spends considerable time in teaching, drilling, and reviewing a subject known as "Least Common Multiple," with the full knowledge that she has never used the process in her life, except to teach it, and that the pupil never will either. It is merely a matter of tradition.

Here we are face to face with the great parting of ways. Froebel says the fundamental consideration is the child, his personality. All else is to be considered in view of its reaction on this divine entity. The opposing view holds: There are subjects to be taught. The child is a convenient thing to teach them to. You can't teach geography without children. Therefore we must have children in the schools, but the geography is the important fact and the child must accommodate himself to it. Included between these two extreme views range the teachers of the country, the mass practically adhering to the un-Froebelian view. Once more, let us search our practice. Let us bow to the Froebelian law of self-revelation. Let us make the child the starting-point for our courses of study and our methods. When we do that our schools will be revolutionized and the Froebelian thought will be incarnated in our children.

It was necessary to deal thus frankly with the post-kindergarten section of our school system. It was necessary to show that the Froebelian doctrine, not the kindergarten, was the standard. It was necessary to show, also, that the change in courses of study, in methods of teaching, and in every detail of school administration that must come (and it will come) from an honest effort to realize the Froebelian thought, is startling. But what of the kindergarten itself? Are all kindergartners really true to Froebel? Do not

some of them exalt the letter above the spirit? Froebel made two bequests. First, he bequeathed us a body of doctrine which is so true, so inspiring, so vitalizing, that it is a priceless possession. Modern psychology has modified some of this doctrine. That was to be expected and the contributions of psychology should be gratefully acknowledged. Surely, a man like Froebel, who looked at truth with such open eyes must have himself expected that this would happen. But modern psychology has also given its indorsement to most of Froebel, to all indeed that we hold dear.

Second, Froebel bequeathed us a series of directions to enable us to concrete his principles. Most of these relate to the sub-primary period of instruction, the so-called kindergarten period. A few relate to the conduct of subjects in later grades. It was to be expected that eventually two schools of kindergarten practice would develop, the one emphasizing the Froebelian principles, the other the Froebelian practice. These two schools were most felicitously portrayed by Miss Patty Hill in a previous issue of the *Yearbook*.

Is it not fair to press upon the attention of kindergartners the same mode of thinking which we have demanded in the foregoing treatment of the so-called grades from the Froebelian standpoint? When a kindergartner insists on the use of a series of gifts and occupations just because they were prescribed by Froebel, or anyone else, how does she differ from a primary teacher who persists in using methods which also have the sanction of many honored names in the past? If the kindergartner claims that she is using the material because they express the Froebelian principles, then she must in all fairness demand that we follow throughout the post-kindergarten course the methods of teaching drawing prescribed by Froebel. In the present development of art-study in the schools, this would be the *reductio ad absurdum*. Indeed from this point of view it must be admitted that the primary school has shown more openness of mind than some of the champions of the kindergarten. Are we not indeed violating the fundamental demand of Froebel himself in exalting the practice above the principle? Listen: "For the living thought, the eternal divine principle as such demands and requires free self-activity and self-determination on the part of man." Why should the self-determination be granted to the

child and be withheld from the teacher? Is not its application universal?

The fealty of the kindergartner to Froebel is beautiful, and she has fought so many fights in his behalf that every fact of the kindergarten has become dear to her. Yet the great fact remains that if all education is to fuse into one, the kindergartner must do what she expects the primary teacher to do, sit at the feet of the children and ask them what is right. They know and they only. They do not know that they know, but they know, and they will tell us if we know how to ask and are not too proud to ask. No method of embodying Froebel's thought, no matter how valuable, can stand a moment after we have discovered a better. The principle of self-activity is eternal; the third gift is a possible expression. It was Froebel's expression, but after all the important consideration is the self-activity and not the third gift. It must be expressed in a thousand ways in the primary and grammar and high-school grades. Why are not many ways possible in the kindergarten?

It seems to the writer that the truth of the postulate laid down early in this article is unavoidable: that all education is one and that breaks are illogical. If this be true, unity so far as the Froebelian doctrine is concerned must come from an absolutely honest and unflinching application of the Froebelian laws to all school life, and this means the kindergarten as well as the primary or grammar school. When that consummation is reached the kindergarten as a distinct institution will have passed away, or rather it will have absorbed within itself the whole of education. That will be the day of its transfiguration. The day is hastening. And when one thinks of the idea of the divine purpose that runs all through the Froebelian writings, surely it is not irreverent to say of that day, that "then the whole earth shall be filled with the knowledge of the Lord as the waters cover the sea."

III

HOW CAN THE TRAINING OF KINDERGARTNERS AND PRIMARY TEACHERS CONTRIBUTE TO ECONOMY IN EDUCATION OF CHILDREN?

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WHAT IS ECONOMY?

Economy is here understood to mean not mere economy of time, but of energy; a conservation of all the forces of the individual, for his own development. It means, moreover, the conservation of his energies as a social factor. This educational economy means that the children are put by virtue of their school life into an efficient working relation with society. It means the pooling of native impulses and interests for social achievement. Economy concerns the teacher's energy as well. The conservation of her energies is also a necessity. The utilization of her varied capacities and especial talents, both temperamental and acquired, this too is an important educational economy.

There has been waste to the teacher and waste to the child through the disharmony of the kindergarten and the elementary school, and a tremendous waste to society in the loss, not of the school child's time, but of impulses starved that might have been fruitful, energies fritted away in petty, purposeless work, and motives lost that might have been turned into engines of power.

THE ROOT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL

The disharmony between the spirit and aim of the elementary school and the spirit and aim of the kindergarten lies in the very roots of each. The school is built on the group plan, so also is the kindergarten; but the school group has always existed for convenience sake, the kindergarten group has existed from its beginning as a social necessity. The school has always kept the units in its group socially as far apart as possible. The kindergarten has con-

sciously striven to get them into the social reactions of criticisms and co-operation.

The school has chosen isolation of the individual in his work because it has feared the movement, the action, which free contact brings. It meant disturbance. The kindergarten has encouraged free contact because it has held that social habits must be formed very early.

The kindergarten has respected the native impulses and interests, the school has ignored them. The kindergarten has utilized tendencies to imitation, investigation, play, making, and art.

The school has taught not the arts of civilization, but two or three of them only, namely those which would make the learner an efficient clerk or salesman.

The kindergarten has striven to help children to discover and control their own powers; the school has striven to teach certain facts, to cover a certain amount of ground, and to give discipline in habits of industry and accuracy.

In short, the chief aim of the school has been instruction to the end of "getting on" in the world. The chief aim of the kindergarten has been development to the end of individual completeness in the social relations.

While these are the avowed theoretic differences in organization and end there can be no economic adjustment of kindergarten to school.

The kindergarten, however, has often fallen short of its principles while the school has been undergoing changes that have widened its aim.

The kindergarten has spread rapidly in this country because of its fidelity to the fundamental impulses toward play in the forms of making, building, shaping, dramatizing, and because it obeys the desire for companionship and recognition.

That it has suffered from over-emphasis on the formal side of Froebel's idea may be charged against it. It has suffered from the very condition which has given it so strong a foundation in the minds of the thinkers of the previous quarter-century, namely, the idealistic absolutism of Froebel's philosophy which has given to his teaching the authority of a gospel, and to its orthodox leaders the qualities of discipleship.

The kindergarten has suffered equally from the fact that it has been considered a dumping-ground for young women who have had too little education for other departments of teaching. It is only recently that any save a few training schools have been able to maintain a high standard.

To be fair it must be stated that, as we all know, the school is greater than its traditions both in method and aim. Great teachers there have been in all times, who have transcended the aims of instruction and discipline inherited from the early Renaissance. It remains for this generation to reconstruct educational philosophy, to bring it into harmony with our outlook upon social betterment, and to make it run with the current of mental growth, not against it.

FORCES MAKING FOR HARMONY

There are mighty forces playing upon both school and kindergarten bringing them nearer together. These forces are the spirit of scientific method, the genetic study of mental life, the moral awakening expressed in the sensitiveness to good and evil in social conditions, the effort toward social progress, the breaking of the bonds of authoritative ecclesiasticism, and the growing realization of a broader, freer religious belief. Away beneath and beyond both school and kindergarten in the tendencies of society and in the research of men of science, the enlightening processes are at work that will make for the future, not two radically different things—a kindergarten and a school—but a continuous educational organization. Then the question of the economic training of kindergartners and elementary teachers will solve itself.

Even now we have sporadic cases of the kind of school in which this unification is possible.

Psychology has shown us some of the defects of kindergarten method, while it has, in the main, reinforced its theoretic basis. Psychology enjoins upon the school just that procedure which makes it truly continuous with the kindergarten. It has shown us that, as Froebel said of the education of boys: "Lessons through and in work are by far the most profitable." It has shown us that the school cannot prepare for life by dealing with the formalities of reading and writing the abstractions of number and the dead facts of history and geography.

Psychology has shown us the force of suggestion and imitation. It has made plain the fact that imitation and suggestion are fruitful in the social play of little children, that the kindergarten was altogether right in its fostering of these plays that a child might gain in this early stage whatever of social training he could absorb from representing the various phases of social activity. It has shown us that the relation which the child of kindergarten age seeks blindly in his play is still sought continuously and ever more consciously by the child of school age. Psychology has shown us that it is through concrete experiences that stimulus to thinking comes and enforces thereby a continuance of that contact with things and events with the phenomena of nature and the processes found in industry and trade which the kindergarten child is given.

Sociology gives us the same picture of primitive man evolving a civilization and a higher type of mind by the continuous meeting and solving of the concrete problems enforced by the necessities of food, clothing, and shelter. It shows us the child at play at hunting, fishing, tent-making, and fire-building, and later sharing in the industries of home and tribe. We civilized folk have in our greater wisdom divorced the child from any active interests in his home and industries and have driven him from fear of untoward consequences to school where his normal tastes for tent-building, cave-digging, camping, meet a check. We have snubbed his interest in real work and forced him to hours, weeks, and years of imprisonment at tasks which have to him no remote bearing upon the important pursuits of life. Just at the age when he might be learning the strength of co-operation in work we set him solitary at a desk to furrow his brow over abstractions, formulations, and dreary drill of the schools.

From the modern axiom "All consciousness is motor," we are learning to build the curriculum of the elementary schools on overt activities. The kindergartner and primary teacher have gained therein another point of contact.

SCHOOLS THAT ARE EXTENSIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN IDEA

I can think, at this moment, of nine noted schools, not including the famous one at Tuskegee, in which the work is absolutely continuous with that of the kindergarten, and is carrying into effect its

vital principles; if not avowedly, still implicitly. Not that all of them have kindergartens, some of them being boarding-schools located in the country.

To go into one of these schools gives one the same impression of joyousness and lively interest that one finds in a kindergarten. Here a group of children have returned with sketches from nature from which they are to select one to be used as the *motif* for the decoration of a bare wall in their eighth-grade room. It is to be enlarged to a scale for which measurements have been taken and calculations have been made. Another group has planned a garden, measured and platted it, and the children are just going out to lay it off. A third has been carrying on a series of experiments in fire-making. A fourth is in the cooking-room preparing a luncheon to which the children of a neighboring room have been invited. That luncheon seems merely a tea party to the casual observer, but it is the climax of some weeks of cooking in which they have learned the reaction of heat on starches, the rising properties of beaten egg, of soda and acids, and the main facts of absorption and evaporation in fruits. They have experimented, written recipes, measured quantities, learned the values of halves, quarters, eighths, and sixteenths, reduced and expanded recipes in mathematical proportions to serve fewer or more people. In short it has furnished motive for much systematic work in science, reading, writing, and number. Here a group of seventh-grade children are in the library reading—another are working over a sand table illustrating the transporting and deposition of silt. Another are calculating the amount of wheat grown in Minnesota and the number of people it will supply with bread, this following on a visit to the grain elevators.

All will soon assemble to hear a French play given by the fifth grade. This is life. The school is treated as if it were a little village or a big family. Real activities are engaged in. The initiative of the individual is encouraged. Situations are brought about which arouse the desire to work, to make, to invent. Natural avenues of interest are exploited, each group works together upon problems commensurate with the power and interests of its members. The groups come together in general assembly daily, and there contribute whatever of interest each may have to offer as the result of the common work or investigation. They are kept in close touch with the processes

of nature through the changing year. The supreme emphasis is placed by the teachers upon the development of controlling interests, the enlistment of sincere purpose. Some of the typical activities are gardening, wood-working, pottery, and modeling, cooking, weaving, dyeing, sewing, book binding, and printing. Formal studies are pursued under the necessities forced upon the children by the demands felt in their more concrete work for writing, reading, and number. Drill grows out of the plainly felt need for smoothness, ease, and quickness. The social good is the corrective of behavior and furnishes the stimulus for concrete achievement. Critical review of their own work gives them the impetus to further endeavor and study. Failure is the starting-point for persistent effort. The discipline of life comes to these children as it comes to adults, enforced by the great measure of desire which goes into the work they undertake.

There are play-times, festivals, the field-day with games and sports, excursions to the lake shore and the woods, at which young and old play together. The keynote of its discipline is the solution of problems. The habit developed ought to be the power to seize upon a situation, find a point of interest, analyze its factors, and to deal with them intelligently. This school needs no *connecting* "class" with its kindergarten. It connects. Such a school makes the laboratory for the normal student. She may study the technique of the kindergarten, or of the primary grades, or of the so-called grammar grades. She may devote herself to science teaching or the teaching of handicrafts, or of music, or of physical culture, but first, and before all, she must become imbued with the fundamental doctrines of education as they are being demonstrated before her eyes.

I have magnified the elementary school out of all proportion to the rest of this paper because it seems to me to be the basis and foundation of all experience. It furnishes the point of contact.

FUNCTION OF PRACTICE

In all school training we have three main factors, each with its especial function: the departments of instruction in arts and sciences, the department of philosophy and education, and the laboratory of education furnished by the practice school. These

organs of the school are equally and vitally important. It would be crippled if any one of them were weak, and yet in the practice school the center of the whole is found. It is in the practice school that theories are put to the test, it is here that knowledge and experience with children are gained. Here should be aroused that zeal for the work of teaching which carries the teacher over difficulties, and doubts.

Every instructor in the departments relies on the elementary school of course as a means of demonstrating what he means when he deals with values of his subjects with its presentation, and its significance to the children. But does every instructor make clear to his students the delicacy of the problem of dealing with children? Does he make his students appreciate that each one of them may be responsible for the opening of the children's minds to ideas, or for the closing of their minds forever to certain aspects when badly presented? Does he inspire them with the desire to teach? Does he put practice-teaching in the light of a great privilege, as an artistic and delicate piece of work?

It rests largely with the teachers of science, history, literature, art, number, and every other subject that touches great ramifying human interests, to see to it that, however deeply he may immerse his students in his own subject, the enthusiasm for it is carried over into teaching. To this end no departmental instructor can afford to hold aloof from psychology. He must know children as well as he knows his subject, and he must know life, and feel the relation of his particular subject to social problems. The focus of his knowledge must sooner or later rest upon the school. Nor can application of subject-matter to school be secured by lecture or educational method and device. The application is for the student to work out. She must find the points of meaning, her first problem, and her plan of presenting them, which is her second.

FUNCTION OF STUDENT TEACHER IN PRACTICE SCHOOL

The practice school can mean nothing in shaping the professional character of the future teacher if she is merely an observer of its activities. It will count for little in an ethical and emotional sense if the prospective teacher goes into it merely to test and try experiments as she would go into a laboratory. Laboratory the

elementary school and kindergarten must be, but never chiefly nor solely laboratory. The student must be enlisted sympathetically and intellectually in the active pursuits of the children. The problem for the normal school is here; the raw, untrained, crude student with vague theories must somehow enter the schoolroom door filled with a wholesome consciousness of her function in that room, with something to do for and with the children that she herself is really interested in.

Much knowledge the normal school cannot give its students within the limits of a two-years' course. Their educational theory must of necessity be comparatively untried and therefore somewhat unassimilated, but some things the normal school can do. Its students can go out with a view down an alluring perspective of study and a zeal for work with children. They cannot be full of knowledge on every subject that they may need to teach in the elementary school. They may, however, have been taught how to study, the meaning of study, and be filled with a strong motive for work and a view of teaching that enforces respect and sincerity. To this end the practice school exists.

How to achieve this in detail is the problem. I believe that much practice teaching is scrappy. The students prepare an isolated lesson, enter, relieve themselves of their mental load, and depart. The short visit may serve for purposes of the instructor who wishes to have his class see an illustrative lesson, given either by a trained teacher or by a class member for analysis and instruction, but there must be something more than this. The children cannot be known, in this fragmentary view. A longer stay for a period of weeks gives the student an opportunity to get into a normal social relation with the children, to see them reacting to varied subjects, in various conditions, to see them when they are fresh in mind and when they are fatigued. There are numerous ways in which the student teacher can get into a normal relation with the children of any grade, class, or group, before her teaching begins. She can assist in handicrafts, seat-work, accompany them on excursions, and take part in plays and games. Then when her own time for teaching comes, she is one of them and not that anomaly, a "practice-teacher."

The kindergarten student has had an advantage in this respect

in the usual separate kindergarten training-school, where it has been customary to send her to a large kindergarten in which she has been responsible for a group. This has developed early in her period of training a sense of responsibility and the keen interest which accompanies actual work. Its tendency is to resourcefulness and ease. On the other hand, there has been a great loss of power, a great waste due to the weakness of her supervision and the uncritical attitude that she bears to her own work, for as the head kindergartner is usually busy herself, and is often untrained in analysis and criticism, she cannot help the student to get the principles lying beneath her successes and failures. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon two points, for both the students who are working in the primary grades, and those in the kindergartens:

First, time for real acquaintance, not mere "knowledge about" the children as they react to the varied influences that play upon them; time to know differences in individual character and temperament; opportunity to enter sincerely and sympathetically into their activities; freedom to initiate, carry out, and revise her own plans.

Second, definite help in reviewing her own teaching with the head teacher, to discover her weak points, that she may be helped to realize some of the fundamentals that go into artistic teaching.

Good teaching in kindergarten and primary school involves something vastly more than giving lessons with logical method. It means that undefinable influence exerted by the tactful, intuitive, and sympathetic person. Froebel called it "nurture." Perhaps this quality can never be taught or trained into any student, but it can be very successfully choked. It involves sensitiveness to the mental and emotional differences in different children, readiness to supply the unspoken needs read in expression and gesture, or guessed from eloquent but subtle indications.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CANDIDATES

We are often distressed at the youth of candidates for the kindergarten normal class, but we do not always make the best of their youthfulness. The training teachers, full of the deeper insights of philosophy of education despair of imparting to them their point of view and richness of expression. Of course the ideal

condition would be that in which plenty of cultivated, tactful persons of good taste would appear at the doors of our normal schools to demand entrance to the kindergarten training class; but, taking conditions as we often find them, we must not forget that the girls have something quite as essential, namely, a warmth of emotional life, the lively interest of the youthful mind in the very things that the kindergarten children are interested in.

For several years I have asked my incoming classes to write for me their reasons for choosing the kindergarten as a field for work. The answers are not tabulated, but there is a typical one: "I have always liked little children and love to be with them and have looked forward all through high school to teaching in the kindergarten." If we were only wise enough instead of being discouraged at the lack of knowledge and insight displayed in this reply, we should utilize this womanly impulse which is blindly trying to get scope and an object on which to expend itself. There must be a way of securing to her a growth in wisdom, in discrimination, and purpose to do something more than amuse and enjoy her charges. This then is one of the great problems that confronts the kindergarten normal teacher. We may raise the standard, require junior college work or full college work for entrance to the kindergarten normal; the chances are that we will then in many cases lose either the student or the fresh vigor of her impulses. It is the familiar question of "nascent periods" which we are facing. Here is a great desire, it is on the *crescendo*. Shall we catch it and train it while it is growing or let it alone until the college girl segregated from family life and contact with young children has lost something of the vitality and starved this impulse which may never blossom as freshly? If she teaches later it will be from an aroused interest in subject-matter and she is most likely to choose grammar-grade or high-school work as offering most scope. Still, later, she may return to the desire to teach little children, from an intellectual interest in psychology or child-study, aroused in her college work.

I do not think this an easy question to settle. There are many poor kindergartners made from this material, but I question whether if they had been initiated more artistically into the psychology and philosophy of the kindergarten many of them might not have developed a broader and deeper view of the work they

are trying to do. I believe an excursion into the socially organized elementary school would be most helpful to these students. I believe also that to confront them with the formalities of the subtle intuitions of Froebel at the beginning of their student life is a mistake; that a simple philosophy of education developed from their own experience first and a sympathetic kind of child-psychology or child-study makes a better introduction and point of departure. With such studies as Dr. Hall's *Story of a Sand-Pile*, and *Contents of Children's Minds*, Barnes's *Studies in Education*, and Sully's *Studies of Childhood*, one can seize the sympathetic and imaginative side of their interest and prepare it for the more thoughtful and philosophic student attitude. This is not an argument for preference of the immature over the mature candidate, but an attempt to point out the compensations and possibilities of training such students. When the candidate does retain her sympathy and elasticity, the more mature mind is infinitely to be preferred.

UNIFYING THE TRAINING OF KINDERGARTNER AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER

That the kindergartner and the elementary teacher should be trained under such conditions that each may become an integral factor in a *whole* school from the baby group in the kindergarten to the high school seems to be a foregone conclusion. We need the skill that comes from a certain specialization but we must face the danger of isolation in seeking specialized training. The training of the kindergartner has been over-specialized. It has, to be sure, been broad in the sense that she has taught the fundamental formulations of a large educational philosophy. It has been fatally narrow in that she has had much contact with the little child's mental type to the exclusion of the older type, with its developed interests. It has been restricted to such subject-matter as may be presented to the very young child.

The intensive, narrow training gives long "schools of work," tremendous amount of detail in occupations, and a very great deal of uncritical practice-teaching in the kindergarten. This might well be in part displaced by a longer perspective in the literature, the nature-study, or appropriate science, and the art of both kinder-

garten and elementary school. In this study stress may well be laid on the adaptation of any given subject-matter or experience to successive stages of growth. This adaptation will be greatly facilitated by observation of definite work in kindergarten and grades, to watch the children's interest, or reaction. It will be further given a basis by the student's work in psychology and child-study which can be in the main the same for both kindergarten and elementary training students.

All students who are preparing for work in the kindergarten and primary grades need a thorough training in the elements of handicraft, and acquaintance with the simpler principles of constructions, and with the possibilities of wood, textiles, leather, cardboard, and clay. They need training in the principles underlying graphic art, such training as will give them some feeling for proportion, color combinations, and harmony. The ability to draw, model, paint, build, sing, and dance may not be developed in every student, but all must at least realize the function of these modes of expression, and be trained well in one or some of them.

By finding the native fitness of each student for some line of artistic expression and cultivating it, teachers may be sent out who can give to the schools in which they teach a power which will touch more than the single room or group.

Young children attend, image, and think best with the end of some definite achievement in view; this self-realization is the law of their mental growth. Therefore teachers of young children must not only appreciate this psychologic fact, but must themselves be made skilful and resourceful in carrying out the aims and interests appropriate to these stages in art forms. The training for the kindergartner and primary teacher would naturally then include a very similar emphasis on the fundamental art principles as found in painting, modeling, and designing. The variation would come in the problem of adaptation to the powers and interests of children at various stages.

Not only in art-forms does this law hold good, the science and nature-study of the school is subject to this law of expression. A child's acquaintance, contact, or experience with the forms and processes of nature naturally leads to the desire to control, or hold the controlling forces more completely. Therefore again experi-

ment, investigation, and discovery both lead to and wait on making and doing.

Child-study and genetic psychology are again needed to illumine the true course of the rise and growth of the scientific attitude. When the teachers of nature-study, natural history, and experimental science can look through the subject to the apprehending mind, and out of the specialized subject to its bearing on life, we shall have the ideal science teacher for both kindergartner and elementary teacher. Children have the power of observing and drawing conclusions, and further of applying these conclusions to the interpretation of new cases. The continuity of this scientific attitude is unbroken. Why then should his life from kindergarten through school be broken into horizontal sections, fitting one set of people to deal with one section and one solely with a later?

The beginning courses in natural science in the normal school may well include kindergarten students. Later courses can furnish a wider and deeper knowledge for those who are to give special attention to the science in the upper grades, but *all* should first have work together which will give an outlook on the field and functions of natural history and experimental science. This would do away with the sentimentality of kindergarten "nature-work." A supplementary kindergartner's course should deal with the adaptation of material to little children, in which the students would psychologize the material, and further learn the practical and necessary modes of dealing with gardening, window gardening, care of pets, simple cooking, and the selection and management of excursions for little children.

Both kindergarten and elementary teachers need the same outlook on literature and to a certain extent history. They need to know the meaning of the story in education, the qualities of good stories for children, the sources from which they may be drawn, the adaptation and telling of stories. It is on this last point that differentiation may begin, and yet the line cannot be closely drawn, in the selection and telling of stories for kindergarten and later ages.

Both kindergartners and primary teachers need a view of what is sometimes called the history of social occupations. It furnishes the clue and background to our common social needs and relations, and while interpreting the civilization of today reveals its continuity

with the past. This great factor in general culture also shows the meaning of social occupations as educative means for children. It links the building, making, and social imitation plays of the children with the constructive occupations of the school and with its dramatic interpretations of social life. It offers to the children of the elementary school opportunities for discovery and invention, in solving some of the problems that have confronted the race in satisfying the needs for food, clothing, and shelter.

The point of view gained in such a course as this seems to be after a thorough test one of the most unifying and cultural in the whole range for *all* teachers of children.

It would certainly seem as if the teacher of mathematics should have something to offer the kindergarten student if it is only the warning that she must not yield to the temptation of being over-mathematical in her use of Froebel's mathematically constructed gifts. This warning comes forcibly from the person who sees the whole of the child's growth in control of number. He can well assist the kindergarten student to find what is psychologically appropriate to the kindergarten stage.

With the present emphasis on games, sports, and dancing as complementary to formal gymnastics it is certain that both classes of students can unite economically in most of the gymnastic work. While the elementary students go into the older forms of athletics, the kindergarten and primary students should spend more time in the acquisition of a repertoire of children's games: ball games, folk games, ring games, and representation plays.

In child-study and psychology there is—let us be thankful for it—one great unifying and solving force. Here all students are at one in the effort to interpret mental function, and the order of mental growth. Probably the latest courses taken by the kindergarten under this head should deal with specialization in the study of the play-period of growth.

Throughout this discursive and very insufficient discussion of my subject, I have tried to show the modes of study that would lead to unity in fundamentals and variety in particular adjustments. The problem of teaching the younger children enforces an adaptation of subject-matter and method to the more infantile grasp and scope. Out of the wider field then the student must select, adjust,

and organize. This offers her a great opportunity for discrimination and study of children. The weakest thing in our customary training of kindergartners is the giving of too much predigested food, and the browsing on fenced in fields where they may find arranged *only* what is suitable to the child under six years of age. Unity! unity! we cry; then let us put the kindergartner and primary teacher together wherever possible, and it is possible, whenever fundamentals are being dealt with, either in subject-matter, methods, or psychology. Specialization then will be the later flower, the finer adaptation of means to end. Selection and organization and teaching art furnish the kindergartner's special training.

IV
THE RELATIVE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES
OF HAVING ONE SUPERVISOR OF KINDERGARTENS
AND PRIMARY WORK IN THE CITY SCHOOL
SYSTEM

MARGARET GIDDINGS

Supervisor of Kindergarten and Primary Schools, Denver, Colorado

There are many reasons for the kindergarten's isolation from the public-school system. Most of these are the outcome of ignorance on the part of both kindergartners and school people as to the meaning or value of their respective departments of education. This ignorance is largely due to the misunderstandings which arise from the establishment of any new system.

As time will remove these misunderstandings, they may be passed over while consideration is given to the fundamental cause of the existing gap between the kindergarten and the primary school.

This cause embraces more than the difference in methods or in phraseology between the two, since it deals directly with the ideals which have shaped the course of each. Kindergartens were introduced into this country while the schools were steeped in the formalism of academic education, and for years they stood for an ideal which was opposed in spirit and practice to every tradition of the educational scheme. Naturally they were not looked upon with favor by the educators of that day. Kindergartens were either condemned as harmful or impractical, or else they were looked upon as being good in themselves, but as something entirely foreign to the school as a whole. As long as this attitude existed, there could be no real effort made to combine the two, although there have always been spasmodic local attempts to bring about their union. Usually these attempts have aimed to so change the kindergarten practice that it might be more consistent with the primary-school methods. However, school ideals have been changing, and

while kindergartens have been spreading and growing in numbers and strength, the school system itself has been undergoing a revolution, until now in theory, at least, the two may be said to accept as their basis the same fundamental principles of education. Since this is so, why is there a gap between the kindergarten and the elementary school? In theory there is none; in practice, however, it does exist in the majority of city-school systems, a real menace to the kindergarten, and a cause for much discussion among school men.

We have had much advice. Kindergartners, teachers, superintendents, and even college men, have bent their efforts to secure the desired unity. This advice has been of immense value. It has caused a much-needed awakening in the ranks of the kindergartners, and is probably largely responsible for the revolt against the traditional kindergarten methods, which has led many to the modification of kindergarten practice along the lines of modern child-study and educational philosophy. It has also established a better understanding between the kindergarten and elementary school, and best of all, has brought about a real desire for a closer co-operation.

A careful survey of the subject, therefore, would indicate that since a common view point has been reached that the next step is to make a practical adjustment which shall wisely reconstruct methods on both sides to the end of establishing a connected scheme for education as a whole.

Many of us believe that this will come more quickly, and more intelligently through a closer supervision of both kindergartens and primary grades—a supervision which shall include under one head the direct oversight and management of the kindergartens and at least the first three grades of the elementary school. It is the object of this paper, therefore, to set forth for discussion some of the advantages and disadvantages of such an arrangement.

ADVANTAGES TO KINDERGARTEN

The recognition accorded to the kindergarten by this combination would in itself do much to place it upon a firmer basis than it has heretofore occupied. To place it in the position of one of the grades of a school, instead of a separate department, would imme-

diately insure for it a public recognition which would go far toward bridging the gap between it and the first grade. As part of the primary school, there would at once arise the desire on both sides for a closer union. A desire which should stimulate a closer study of the aims and function of each, and which would furnish that real incentive for necessary adjustment and mutual modifications.

This broadening of the educational horizon of the kindergartners should break down any tendency toward that exclusiveness with which they have been charged, since it would force upon them the conception of the whole scheme of education, and would therefore help them to see the kindergarten in a truer relation to the school in general.

Such a supervision could also, without harm to the kindergarten, practically modify many of its methods to fit the requirements of the succeeding grades. Some of these modifications may be considered under the following heads:

1. *A better selection of subject-matter for the kindergarten program.*—This should provide that those interests, both in nature and human nature which are fundamental to man, should form the basis for the program, and further that these interests should be considered in the light of the child's environment and his stage of development. This would give a more logical foundation for the primary course of study than would a program built on Froebel's *Mother-Play* or one which considered only the temporary and fleeting interests of the five-year-old child.

2. *A more systematic attempt to simplify kindergarten handwork, games, and stories.*—Much of the handwork or so-called occupation work of the kindergarten is too complicated in execution and finish for the four- and five-year-old children. All kindergarten work should be so simple and crude that the children would be able to construct it without so much personal supervision as is now given. Primary teachers complain, and justly so, that kindergartners can procure from their children results which they cannot secure from those who are two or three years older. It would be, therefore, of immense help in establishing handwork in the primary school if a supervisor could suggest occupations which would allow for much independent work in the kindergarten, and thereby prepare the children to execute without much help most of the

constructive work planned for the first grade. Most primary teachers have too many pupils to allow them to give the time for personally supervised handwork; therefore, they leave it out entirely, or substitute so-called busy-work, which often provides only a means of activity without taking into account educational values.

There should also be provided a better selection of games for the kindergarten; a selection which should recognize the racial instincts of the child, and which should be better suited to his physical needs.

Stories, too, need modifying along these same lines. Many of the kindergarten stories now used are too long and complicated as to plot and interests.

3. *Consideration as to the use of tools.*—Many of the same tools used in the kindergarten are also employed in the grades, such as pencils, scissors, and paint brushes. Provisions should be made whereby kindergarten children shall be given the correct method of holding, and using these tools, thus forestalling the possibility of primary teachers having to break up bad habits before they can install good ones.

These points may be said to deal with the kindergarten curriculum, if such a term may be applied to the work of such tiny children. There are, however, many adjustments on the administrative side which may be made by a supervisor to the great benefit of the kindergartens and the school.

She may arrange certain reports for the kindergarten children that shall give to the first-grade teacher a basis for grading the incoming class. These reports should give the length of attendance, the ability and physical and mental development of each child who is promoted. This would be of distinct advantage to the child, since it would make it possible to adapt the first-grade work to his ability from the beginning of his primary career; and besides, it would protect the reputation of the kindergarten by furnishing information to the primary teacher which would enable her to realize that there is a big difference between the child who has had two years in the kindergarten, and one who has spent only a portion of that time there. At present, there is a general tendency to average the attainments of all kindergarten children without any consideration as to the time spent by each one in the kindergarten,

with the very natural consequence that there is a decided lowering of the standard of kindergarten results.

The supervisor can also provide some means whereby age alone shall not determine promotion to the first grade. There are often children of six years who are not fitted, either mentally or physically, to do the prescribed first-grade work in a year, and for their own good they should at least be allowed to stay in the kindergarten until they are more developed. This would be an immense help to the first grade teacher, and would prevent the many cases of discouragement and confusion on the part of slow or backward little ones, who are often injured for years by forcing.

She could make, too, some provision for the promotion of such teachers as are not fitted for kindergarten work to the grades where they can be reasonably successful; and also see to it that when a kindergartner shows herself capable of larger responsibilities she shall have a chance of advancement to such school offices as are open to the rank and file of the grade teachers.

ADVANTAGES TO THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

The advantages to the primary school would be similar in character to those just stated; they would follow the same general heads with such modifications as were desirable to bring about the adjustment from the school side.

The installation of the kindergarten as part of the school system would place it in such direct relation with the grades that the opportunity for the spreading of the kindergarten spirit would be much increased. This would benefit the primary school immeasurably for, not only has this spirit, which has been called by someone the "mother spirit," accomplished much in bringing about the newer ideals of education, but it must become even more dominant before we can bring about a greater spontaneity in the grades.

The association of primary and kindergarten teachers, especially if this be accomplished by joint meetings presided over by the supervisor, will in time eliminate the prejudice which has held many school people from a better understanding of kindergarten aims and practice. There are also many definite adjustments on the part of the primary grades, which the supervisor may deem as necessary as the adjustments from the kindergarten side. Some of these are as follows:

1. A scheme should be outlined for a course of study which shall take cognizance of the development which the kindergarten child receives before he enters the first grade. It is generally admitted that he has a better use of his hands, but it is seldom that any provision is made for the use of the interests and experiences which he has acquired by his months of kindergarten training.

These might be utilized directly in the teaching of all the first grade technical studies especially reading; and it should be the supervisor's business to suggest means and methods by which this fund of material shall be utilized and turned to account.

It is the author's opinion, indeed, that at this point might be made the truest connection between the kindergarten and the elementary schools since it is essential that primary teachers shall feel that the kindergarten prepares directly in some manner for the prescribed work of their grade.

2. Such a course of study should be a direct outgrowth of the kindergarten program.

The same interests which dominate the child in the kindergarten are keenest in the life of the primary child, and a conscious provision for meeting these interests could be devised by the supervisor.

3. Selection of appropriate games and stories. In the same manner she could outline primary games and suggest stories suitable for the developing and enlarging interests of the maturing child.

4. *Selection of kindergarten materials and methods for primary school.*—There are many kindergarten materials, and some methods which are applicable to the grades above the kindergarten. These could be selected and incorporated into the practice of the primary school by a competent supervisor, who could outline a course in handwork, for example, which should take into consideration the ability which the children have acquired in the kindergarten, besides providing for a consistent development of manual dexterity and artistic appreciation, through the succeeding grades.

ADVANTAGES TO THE SCHOOL

Since the advantages suggested as accruing to kindergarten and primary school would affect the entire school, it is not necessary to consider this side of the question at any great length. There are a

few financial considerations, however, which might carry weight with a school board.

In the first place there would be a saving in salary by the merging of the positions of kindergarten and primary supervisor.

The average salary for primary supervisor seems to be about two thousand dollars per annum, while kindergarten supervisors will probably average one thousand; in the event, therefore, of a school system employing both, the combined salary for supervision would be approximately three thousand dollars. By combining the two offices, this should be reduced considerably. An opinion only can be ventured on this point, since it has been impossible to find any statistics in regard to such a salary, the only city reporting a system of kindergarten and primary supervision being Rochester, which in 1905 paid a salary of two thousand dollars to its supervisor of kindergarten and primary grades. If an adjustment, however, were made on the basis of a 25 per cent. increase, which would seem a fair estimate of the worth of the added work, there would still be a saving of five hundred dollars.

A supervisor who had in her hands the equipment and furnishing of both kindergarten and primary grades, should be able also to make a better adjustment of the cost of each, bringing the expense of the kindergarten into a better relation to that of the school. This could be done by selecting cheaper materials which would serve the same purpose as those which are commonly used in kindergartens and by reducing the expense of all materials for hand work by buying substantially the same things for both kindergarten and primary grades.

She should also be able to arrange a better salary schedule and better hours of teaching for the kindergarten teachers, thus putting them on a fairer salary basis than they occupy now in many cities.

DISADVANTAGES TO KINDERGARTEN AND SCHOOL

On this side of the question there is one problem so serious that it should be given perhaps the most careful consideration of any item in the whole subject. As this grows out of present conditions it may be looked upon as temporary, but for the time being it embodies real danger, which should be fully realized before the scheme under discussion is accepted.

The problem is to find a person whose training has been such that she could supervise both kindergarten and primary schools with equal success.

While there are many courses in education offered by universities and normal schools which should fit one without any special preparation in methods, to plan a course of study for children between the ages of four and ten, still as all the tendency in the past has been toward specialization, it would be almost impossible to secure anyone who would not be biased in favor of either the kindergarten or the primary school. In either case, a chance for grave mistakes and actual danger is imminent.

If the supervisor chosen be a kindergartner, she might actually damage the kindergarten cause by forcing upon primary teachers kindergarten methods before they have accepted kindergarten principles. There are many methods suitable for kindergarten children which may be really detrimental to older children by retarding them on the play-stage of their development; and to introduce these into the primary school would be premature and unwise, and would be apt to arouse an antagonism on the part of the primary teachers which would defeat the very object for which the supervisor is working.

Then, too, she might not possess either the knowledge or ability which would enable her to shape the primary course of study from the technical side, and her ignorance in this respect and inability to provide practical help and suggestions would give her only a half-hold on the situation.

She might have the wisdom of Solomon in selecting profitable busy work, suitable stories, or educational games which are applicable to the primary grades, but unless she could meet her problem on all sides by having a knowledge of education in its broadest sense, she would be building a structure which would not stand beyond the reign of her personal influence. The hand work might be accepted, her stories told, and her games played, her suggestions being accepted even with enthusiasm, but it would be like building a house upon the sands for it would be the establishment of methods without the groundwork of principles. As a permanent adjustment such work could have no lasting hold on either teacher or school.

On the other hand, a supervisor who has been trained in, and all of whose experience has been along, primary lines, might work untold harm to the kindergarten.

If she has no knowledge of what the kindergarten is trying to accomplish; if to her eyes kindergarten procedure is play which leads only to a disorder of thinking, and a lawlessness of conduct, she would be almost sure to attempt a connection between the kindergarten and the school by shaping the former to the general conduct of the latter. Formal school discipline might be demanded, and training along technical lines so unduly emphasized that the kindergarten would degenerate into a sub-primary school, the maintenance of which would probably not be worth either the time or the money expended.

Under either of these circumstances, it would undoubtedly be better to employ a separate supervisor for each department, since it would be infinitely better to keep the two apart than to retard their ultimate consolidation, by forcing premature or unwise adjustments upon either.

Aside from such possible danger, however, there would seem to be no real advantage to be gained from such a separation.

It is true that such a division might so lighten the duties of each supervisor that she would have more time for specialization, or fuller preparation in her chosen line. It would also allow her to give more individual help to her teachers, a certain amount of which is necessary to any successful supervision.

It is equally true, however, that unless the two supervisors were both unusually interested in bringing about the union of their departments, and could bring to the solution of their problem a certain amount of knowledge which would enable each to know the educational value of the work of the other, we should still be to some extent in the condition which we now deplore. It is not only necessary that practical connections should be devised, but someone must have the authority to enforce them, before any permanent unity between the kindergarten and the primary school can be fully established.

A PRACTICAL DEMONSTRATION

It is unfortunate that this experiment of having one supervisor for both kindergarten and primary schools has not been attempted

in enough cities to enable us to form an average of results. It is encouraging, however, that it has proved successful in most of the places where it has been tried long enough to have passed the experimental stage. As Rochester is the best example of what has been done along this line, it will be permissible perhaps to use it as a practical illustration of what may be accomplished.

There is no question in Rochester as to whether the kindergarten is a part of the schools. It is considered as necessary as the first grade, and every building has its large, especially planned kindergarten room, where morning and afternoon sessions are held. Nor is the kindergarten spirit confined to the kindergarten room. It dominates the entire system, even the high schools, and has been largely responsible for the creation of the splendid ideal of the Rochester schools.

This has been brought about by the close association of teachers and kindergartners, by the successful joint meeting of the two departments, and, most of all, by the plan which has provided for the promotion of kindergarten teachers to the grades, even to principalships, Rochester having the unique distinction of having placed two such teachers in charge of grammar-school buildings.

In short, Rochester seems to have evolved by this joint supervision a practical and successful co-operation of the kindergarten and the primary school, and it is to be hoped that her example will encourage other city school systems to try the plan as rapidly as they can secure supervisors whose training has fitted them to handle successfully both sides of the problem.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

I. THE WASHINGTON MEETINGS, FEBRUARY 24 AND 26, 1908

General topic: "The Relation of Superintendents and Principals to the Training and Improvement of Their Teachers."

ANALYSIS OF THE GENERAL PROBLEM

- A. The problem—its nature, conditions, and causes.
- B. The solution—chief modes.
 - I. By efficient supervision:
 - 1. Fundamental principles and guiding ideals.
 - 2. The need of superintendents and principals who are masters in the art and science of education.
 - 3. The most effective methods of supervision now in practice.
 - II. By voluntary work—best forms now in practice.
 - III. By required work:
 - 1. In rural-school systems.
 - 2. In city-school systems.
 - IV. By work stimulated by advance in salary or position:
 - 1. Advance based upon promotional examinations.
 - 2. Advance based upon completion of accredited courses of study.
 - V. Miscellaneous:
 - 1. Special courses of study for teachers in service; credit to be given in normal schools and colleges for completion of these non-resident courses.
 - 2. The use of educational publications.
 - (a) By the general educational press.
 - (b) By normal schools and colleges.
 - 3. An eligible waiting-list determined by accepted evidence of preparation and cadet teaching.
 - 4. Leave of absence with or without pay.
- C. The problem and its solution from the teacher's point of view.
 - I. The need, spirit, and attitude.
 - II. The problem of time, energy and expense.
 - III. Freedom of individuality under supervision.
- D. Academic professional preparation before entering service in its relation to progress under superintendent or principal.

Discussion was based upon the Society's *Seventh Yearbook*, Part I. The following programs of ten-minute discussions were carried out:

PROGRAM FOR MONDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 7:45 P. M.

STRATTON D. BROOKS, *Presiding*.

Introduction of the Subject.

CHARLES D. LOWRY, District Superintendent of Schools, *Chicago*.

"A Survey of the Subject as Derived from a Study of Reports from Superintendents and Principals."

JOSEPH S. TAYLOR, District Superintendent, *New York City*.

"Methods of Supervision by the Principal Compared with the Methods of Supervision by the Superintendent."

W. L. STEPHENS, Superintendent of Schools, *Lincoln, Neb.*

"Salary as Affected by Professional Improvement. The Lincoln Plan."

J. STANLEY BROWN, Superintendent Township High School, *Joliet, Ill.*

"The Qualifications of Superintendents and Principals as Affecting the Solution of the Problem."

ALBERT S. COOK, Superintendent of Schools, *Baltimore County, Md.*

"The Improvement of Teachers through Supervision in the County Schools of Maryland."

CLARENCE F. CARROLL, Superintendent of Schools, *Rochester, N. Y.*

"Advantages of the All-Day Grade Institute."

ADA VAN STONE HARRIS, Supervisor of Kindergartens and Primary Education, *Rochester, N. Y.*

"The Problem and Its Solution as Seen by the Primary Supervisor."

FRANK W. COOLEY, Superintendent of Schools, *Evansville, Ind.*

"How Secure Continuous Professional Growth of Teachers, thus Preventing Arrested Development."

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Superintendent of Schools, *St. Louis, Mo.*

"Individual Freedom and Initiative as Factors in Improvement of Teachers."

PROGRAM FOR WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 4:30 P. M.

REUBEN POST HALLECK, Principal Boys' High-School, *Louisville, Ky.*

"The Superintending of High-school Teachers."

GEORGE E. GAY, Superintendent of Schools, *Haverhill, Mass.*

"The Superintendent's Opportunity and Obligation to Assist His Teachers in Both Instruction and Management."

GERTRUDE EDMUND, Principal Training School for Teachers, *Lowell, Mass.*

"The Training and Improvement of Young Teachers during Their Period of Probation."

CHARLES McKENNY, President State Normal School, *Milwaukee, Wis.*

DAVID FELMLEY, President Illinois State Normal University.

JOHN R. KIRK, President State Normal School, *Kirksville, Mo.*

"The Relation of Academic Professional Preparation before Entering Service to Satisfactory Progress under the Superintendent or Principal."

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT, University of Wisconsin.

"The Educational Seminar for Teachers in Service."

GEORGE A. BROWN, Editor *School and Home Education*, *Bloomington, Ill.*

"The Use of the Educational Press by Superintendents and Principals."

H. A. HOLLISTER, High-School Visitor, University of Illinois.

"The Advancement of Teachers through Supervision."

JOHN W. COOK, President State Normal School, *DeKalb, Ill.*

"The Importance of Abundant Life, Energy, and Spirit."

F. B. DYER, Superintendent of Schools, *Cincinnati, Ohio.*

"The Cincinnati Plan."

General discussion: Superintendent H. M. Slauson, Ann Arbor, Mich., Professor George D. Strayer, Columbia University, and Superintendent Charles E. Chadsey contributed some valuable additions to the general discussion.

The discussion carried far beyond the time for closing, but still there were several who were unable to present the special consideration of the problem they had come prepared to give.

II. BUSINESS

The President called attention to the importance of members having their public or school libraries buy the bound sets of the *Yearbooks*. Each of the two sets now bound covers a period of five years, and can be had at cost of associate membership for period covered.

The following committees were announced:

(1) COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL STUDIES FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE CREDIT

C. A. HERRICK, director of School of Commerce, Central High School, Philadelphia, *chairman*.

PAUL H. HANUS, professor of education, Harvard University.

VIRGIL PRETTYMAN, principal Horace Mann High School, Teachers College, Columbia University.

A. S. WHITNEY, professor of education, University of Michigan.

W. J. S. BRYAN, principal Central High School, St. Louis.

W. A. SCOTT, director course in commerce, University of Wisconsin.

FRANK V. THOMPSON, principal High School of Commerce, Boston.

(2) COMMITTEE ON CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

J. STANLEY BROWN, superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.,
chairman.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY, professor of education, Leland Stanford Jr. University.

WALTER E. RANGER, state commissioner of public schools, Providence, R. I.

A. CASWELL ELLIS, associate professor of the science and art of education,
University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

(Vacancy for fifth member not filled.)

Persons elected to active membership were:

BIRD T. BALDWIN, professor of psychology and education, State Normal
School, West Chester, Pa.

JULIAN A. BURRUSS, director of manual arts, Richmond Public Schools,
Richmond, Va.

JACOB H. CARFREY, superintendent of schools, Wakefield, Mass.

MARGARET GIDDINGS, supervisor of kindergartens and first grades, Denver, Col.

H. E. GILES, superintendent of schools, Hinsdale, Ill.

JOSEPH M. GWINN, professor of education, Tulane University, New Orleans,
La.

SAMUEL E. HARWOOD, professor of pedagogy and training, Southern Illinois
State Normal University, Carbondale, Ill.

WALTER R. HATFIELD, public school principal, Chicago, Ill.

EDWIN A. KIRKPATRICK, head of department of psychology and child-study,
State Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.

HARRIET M. MILLS, New York Froebel Normal, New York City.

HARVEY C. MINNICH, dean State Normal College, Miami University, Oxford,
Ohio.

WALTER E. RANGER, state commissioner of public schools, Providence, R. I.

JOSEPH ROSIER, superintendent of schools, Fairmount, W. Va.

LYNN M. SAXTON, instructor in City College, New York City.

C. E. WARRINER, superintendent of schools, Saginaw, Mich.

ARCHIBALD C. WILLISON, superintendent of schools, Allegany County, Cum-
berland, Md.

HENRY S. YOUKER, superintendent of schools, Grand Rapids, Wis.

The committee on nominations, consisting of Walter E. Ranger,
F. Louis Soldan, William E. Hicks, Frederick E. Bolton, and
Edward F. Buchner, reported as follows:

For president—CHARLES McKENNY, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

For secretary-treasurer—MANFRED J. HOLMES, State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

For members of the Executive Committee—C. F. CARROLL, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N. Y., and W. S. SUTTON, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

The report of the nominating committee was adopted and the nominees declared elected.

Superintendent J. H. Van Sickle was appointed chairman of a committee to make such arrangements as might be necessary for a joint session with the Education Section of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, to be held at Baltimore next December.

III. FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1907

Ordinary Expenses

Debtor to University of Chicago Press:

To printing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part I.....	\$204.46	
To mailing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part I, postage, etc.....	20.39	
To printing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part II.....	328.73	
To mailing <i>Sixth Yearbook</i> , Part II, postage, etc.....	23.50	
	<u> </u>	\$577.08

Debtor to Secretary's Expenses:

To clerk, office help, and supplies.....	\$103.30	
To traveling expenses, including Los Angeles trip.....	185.30	
To printing and stationery.....	44.50	
To postage and express.....	56.30	
To telephone and telegraph messages.....	6.25	
To salary as appropriated by Society.....	100.00	
	<u> </u>	495.65
		<u>\$1,072.73</u>

Ordinary Income

Credit thru the University of Chicago Press:

By balance in favor of the National Society, Dec. 31, 1906.....	\$ 70.39	
By balance due National Society from sales of books.....	258.99	
	<u> </u>	\$329.38

Credit thru the Secretary-Treasurer:

By balance per statement December 31, 1906.....	\$222.51	
By 147 active memberships.....	\$441.00	
By 94 associate memberships.....	94.00	
	<u> </u>	535.00
By books and exchange.....	2.47	
	<u> </u>	759.98
		<u>1,089.36</u>

Balance of credits over debits... \$16.63

Extraordinary Expenses

Debtor to University of Chicago Press:

To reprint from plates 500 copies <i>Third Herbart Yearbook</i> and supplement.....	\$ 77.95	
To reprint <i>First Herbart Yearbook</i> , 600 copies	232.47	
	<u> </u>	\$310.42

SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT

Between January 1, 1908, and February 17, 1908, receipts from dues have amounted to \$343.00. This somewhat more than covers indebtedness to date. No statement from the University of Chicago Press is available to show sales between these dates. Such statement would no doubt show quite a sum to the credit of the Society.

The National Society is accumulating considerable property and business interests as a desirable foundation for carrying on studies and investigations that call for use of more money than has been available heretofore. The constitution should be amended creating trustees or directors to properly care for these interests.

The property is in *Yearbooks* and plates. The most of the books will ultimately be sold. A safe estimate of the royalty value of these books is over \$3,000.00. There are in addition to this many thousand pages of electrotypes and stereotype plates. The University of Chicago Press has cultivated the general market for the books and the income through the general trade channels is increasing yearly.

THE EIGHTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I

EDUCATION WITH REFERENCE TO SEX PATHOLOGICAL, ECONOMIC, AND SOCIAL ASPECTS

BY

CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON, PH.D.

Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago, President of Chicago Society of Social Hygiene
Associate Member of American Academy of Medicine

THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CHICAGO MEETINGS OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY, FEBRUARY 22 AND 24, 1909

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1909

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Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.
Secretary-Treasurer

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PREFACE

No apology is made for urging upon teachers, the moral guides of the nation, the duty of helping in the cause of fighting the black plague of the world. A policy of concealment, silence, ignorance, and quackery has borne its monstrous brood of disease, misery, and moral degradation. A false modesty is guilty of much of this giant wrong. There never was a more chivalrous fight for pure women and innocent childhood than that on behalf of which this book is written. Yet, in the present darkened state of the public mind, itself due largely to past ignorance and neglect of medical men, teachers, and pastors, some explanation is necessary of the plan of this study, and evidence will be offered that it is timely and wholly necessary. It has been objected to this study at this time that it diverts the attention of teachers from the consideration of their normal task to exceptional and pathological cases. But this is not a fair statement. The truth is that our schools have professed to teach physiology, hygiene, and morality and have neglected vital factors, the function of elimination of waste and the function of reproduction. Partly in consequence of this neglect we have sexual abuses, excesses, and the plagues of venereal disease. It is high time to recall the teaching profession to its duty, in order that the next generation of parents may be better fitted to rear and educate a wiser and healthier race. The story of pathology is rehearsed only to demonstrate the necessity of a complete education for life. Some good and wise men among our leading educators have seriously questioned the timeliness and prudence of this effort to interest teachers; and they say that others should first break ground and prepare the soil. But who are these others? The physicians? They have already sounded the note of alarm in all their professional magazines. They have organized, in New York, Chicago, and other cities, associations whose purpose it is to lay the facts before parents, teachers, pastors, women's clubs, and legislators. The medical men have done their duty. How long should members of the teaching profession wait? How many more thousands should they see drag their miserable way to physical and moral ruin before

they utter a protest or lend a hand to help? The right time to speak and write and teach is now. For multitudes another ten years of guilty delay would mean disaster. Let him be silent who can with clear conscience.

The first draft of this book was read carefully and approved by Dr. J. M. Dodson, dean of Rush Medical College, Dr. C. P. Small, physician of the University of Chicago, and by Dr. W. T. Belfield, an eminent expert in venereal diseases and secretary of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene. Suggestions of these gentlemen were utilized to improve the text. Dr. Belfield's letter is here reproduced.

CHICAGO, ILL., November 10, 1908

DEAR DR. HENDERSON: Have just finished reading your MS. As you will see when you open the envelope, I took a sheet and started "comments" with references from your pages. But I now feel that the only important comment I can make is an expression of warmest admiration for both matter and manner. I can really suggest no changes that seem to me improvements, beyond the few pertaining to your first pages, already noted.

It is a monograph that will do even you much credit.

Sincerely,

WM. T. BELFIELD

A few encouraging expressions are added because the author really needed cheer where he was obliged to act contrary to the judgment of some men whose opinion he valued and whose approval he would be glad to win.

Ex-Governor W. J. Northen, of Georgia, in an address on "Civic Righteousness in Georgia," before the Georgia Baptist Convention, December 2, 1908, said: "I trust that every citizen who now hears me will study closely the statements in Dr. Henderson's book," and he urges a campaign against that "social institution that has stood for years as an expression of our community life, practically without challenge, and corrupting the morals of men to a most alarming degree."

The paper written for presentation has proved to be scholarly and tactful to our fullest expectancy, considering the nature of its subject matter.
—PROFESSOR HENRY SUZALLO, Teacher's College, Columbia University.

President Charles McKenny, of the Wisconsin State Normal

School and of the Milwaukee society dealing with "social hygiene," says:

I want to thank you and congratulate you on the manuscript. I believe you have done a very great service in its preparation. Its ideals are high, its tone pure, its conviction strong, its facts convincing.

The author has, upon invitation, co-operated with a committee of one of the most influential societies of Chicago, the Chicago Womans' Club, and this volume is in part a response to their appeal to all citizens for help:

The preservation of the moral, mental, and physical health of your own and the interests of social order will enlist your philanthropic efforts in this world-wide movement of moral and physical portent.

A man well known in work for boys and young men writes of the need of this effort:

I should like to say, however, that there are two things which seem to me very important for parents and teachers to realize. The first is, that the existence of any such district or section which is unrestrained, as this West Side district was, is an open menace to the physical as well as the moral welfare of the young men and boys of the community. Indeed, the attention of some of us was called to the district by the death of a 16-year-old lad, as a direct result of an evening spent in that section. The other point is that no one is safe. There are many parents and teachers as well, who have the feeling that because they live in a good section of the city or out in the suburbs, their boys are safe from the contaminating influences of a section that is so degraded as the one of which we are speaking. No more serious mistake could be made. Hundreds of boys who would not deliberately start out to go in a house of ill fame of any class will be led by morbid curiosity, and in crowds, into a section where, as they say to themselves, they can see the sights without going into danger. The first thing they know they are swept off their feet.

Those who conducted the investigations in that section during the last few months found men and boys from all over the city and from some of the best homes in the suburbs thronging the streets. It was a common experience to find from two to three thousand men and boys in that district in a single hour, and they were by no means all of them from the lower class. In a matter of this kind it is certainly well for us all to remember that not one of us is living to himself alone, and that so long as people are ignorant of the terrific dangers involved, someone has neglected his duty.—HERBERT W. GATES.

The dean of women in the University of Chicago expresses this judgment:

Race suicide and divorce are symptoms of a social disorder, doubtless very grave and certainly very evident, whose remedy in my opinion lies in the direction of training both boys and girls for parenthood. . . . If boys were taught the principles of social hygiene and their part in maintaining life upon high levels, I can but believe that with their increased knowledge their moral natures would be aroused and strengthened and the difficulties by which all teachers who deal with young boys are baffled would largely disappear. Without analogous training for girls we cannot expect that . . . good conditions . . . will necessarily produce good mothers.¹

We are simply taking up a line of educational effort which was carried far by the "Philanthropists" of the eighteenth century,² and then long neglected.

The Illuminists discovered and discussed practically all the problems touched in this volume. It is true they had not the scientific equipment which is at our disposal; they did not know the specific germs which cause venereal diseases; they could have improved their instruction by later discoveries in anatomy, embryology, and the laws of evolution. But they had a knowledge of the essential facts of the sexual life, of birth and growth, of the influence of the sexual appetite, and of some of the dangers of prostitution. They knew the value of instruction in preserving youth from vicious conduct, and they gave to knowledge an even more important place than it deserves. In spite of much that is grotesque, coarse, and ridiculous, they left to us many precious suggestions in matters of principle. They were fully aware of the danger of giving instruction about conception, birth, and secret and social vice, and the wise men sought to teach without morbid excitement and premature awakening of curiosity. They studied the problems of feeling in relation to the subject; the cultivation of modesty and shame; the influence of nudity and dress; the preservation of modesty.

They gave careful attention to the management of the appetites, the direction of the will, and the formation of wholesome habits.

¹ Professor Marion Talbot, in a paper before the American Sociological Society, December, 1908.

² Franz Xaver Thalhofer, *Die sexuelle Pädagogik bei den Philanthropen*, 1907.

They discriminated carefully between the normal and the unwholesome manifestations of sexual life and studied the methods of inhibition and the reinforcement of character by idealistic and religious motives. They availed themselves of the best medical counsel in relation to a régime of hygienic conduct in the control of the lower instincts and impulses. The names of Rousseau, Basedow, Salzmann, and Campe, are connected with this pedagogical study and their contributions have been considered in the preparation of this volume.

For many reasons the subject has been greatly neglected among teachers until medical men alarmed the thoughtful with their discoveries of the ravages of venereal diseases, their prevalence among young men in large towns of Europe and America, and the dangers to women and families from this source. Since ignorance and neglect of proper training are part cause of these evils the professional duty of teachers has been made too plain to permit longer neglect.

An extended treatment of sexual education may give to persons unfamiliar with the situation a wrong impression of the central purpose of the writer. It is the clear and decided conviction of the author that instruction in matters of sex should be a natural part of general education; that it should not be over-emphasized with pupils by calling special attention to it and by isolating it from other studies; that the instruction should be brief, simple, and free from embarrassment. It may seem at a hasty glance that this present discussion violates these principles; but in all fairness the reader must consider that this yearbook is for mature persons who are capable of following an objective and scientific argument without harm, and that it is no more intended for general reading than any professional medical book. The investigation was taken up and the treatise written at the earnest request of the Executive Committee of a society of responsible educators who had the conviction that they could not neglect the subject without failure in their official duty. The writer himself had for some years been compelled by his own university duties, by his position as president of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene, and as trustee of schools for erring girls, and by his investigations of pauperism, crime, and industrial conditions in cities, to face this forbidding problem and seek light

for its solution. With men and women who have come in contact practically with the evil consequences of sexual error and wrong, as confidential advisers of youth, no apology for this work will be needed.

Neither completeness nor freedom from error is claimed; but the writer has earnestly sought the best sources of information, has faithfully questioned many professional persons whose knowledge and character entitle them to consideration, has examined a large number of recent works of Europe and America, and, finally, has set down the results in plain, simple, direct speech, with the confident hope that all sensible and earnest teachers will appreciate the difficulty of the subject and weigh the argument without prejudice.

On one side there has been much exaggeration and sensational overstatement, with unreasonable alarm, and not seldom, especially in certain novels, with an appeal to the salacious demands of their customers for pornographic stories.³ Some story makers of "best sellers" find normal life too dull for spicy fiction, and are often inclined to select pathological and monstrous characters as types of modern society, forgetting that the freaks in side-shows on circus days are not specimens of normal and healthy men and women. But on the other hand men and women who have been brought up in sheltered homes and kept free from contact with the depraved, may rest in ignorance of the tragedies which threaten the innocent children in their schools and families, and so unwittingly neglect those measures of precaution which an instructed and conscientious school official would take if he knew the facts.

Young people who are secretly going astray rarely make confidants of teachers; when trouble comes they seek a physician who, like any faithful father-confessor, buries their story under professional confidence. They are fortunate if they do not fall into the hands of some miserable charlatan who both corrupts and robs them. It is not surprising that many teachers, even of long experi-

³ Dr. Howard A. Kelly (*Medical Gynecology*, p. 292) uses a homely illustration to impress the danger of exaggeration: "On all sides of such questions one must beware of exaggeration. 'The diff'rence,' says the astute Dooley, 'between Christyan Scientists an' doctors is that Christyan Scientists think they-se no such thing as disease, an' doctors think there ain't annythin' else.'"

ence, should be unacquainted with these hidden evils. In the course of preparation of these pages about 390 letters were sent to superintendents of schools in towns and cities throughout the United States. Forty-two replies were received; neglect of the others is due to various causes. In answer to the question: "Do you personally know of cases of illicit sexual intercourse by high-school pupils?" the replies indicated that 19 knew of 84 cases of boys and 44 cases of girls at some time within the past years of their experience; 13 cases of illegitimate births were reported. The others did not personally know of any such cases. In reply to the question: "Do you personally know of cases of venereal diseases—gonorrhea, syphilis, or other?" the replies showed that 12 knew of 15 cases of boys and 3 cases of girls; in all probability reported to them by physicians. The answers to the questions about the corruption of pupils by persons of vicious behavior and about the effects of secret vice were too vague to furnish any information of value. This imperfect response may be interpreted in various ways. Does it mean that superintendents are not acquainted with the facts? When a superintendent of long experience in a renowned city declares that he never personally knew a single case of the kinds mentioned, is that proof that none or few occurred? Does it mean that superintendents fear to offend their constituencies? Does it imply that they dislike to touch the subject? Does their silence or their testimony prove that high-school morality is what every patriotic American would like to have it? One explanation is obvious enough: high-school pupils are from the better families and have care and breeding above the average youth. It is also true that lads of high-school age are not yet supplied with money to spend on harlots. The writer believes from considerable observation and inquiry that our youth in high schools are, generally speaking, under the sway of influences which protect them at this age from the baser forms of vice.

This optimistic interpretation, however, is somewhat discounted by the suggestion of a high medical authority who was asked for an explanation: "That superintendents' claim that high schools do not offer a problem can be refuted by almost any broad-minded instructor in them; also by college physicians' experiences with entering freshmen."

We must turn to physicians, dispensaries, and hospitals for our knowledge on this subject; and their evidence, so far as it is accessible, will be presented.

Most of the children leave public schools before the period of storm and stress. Vicious, enfeebled, and perverted children are expelled and deprived of education or sent to reform schools. Only the selected and ambitious youth from fairly cultivated families go through high school. It is not at all strange, therefore, that many superintendents and principals should be ignorant of the extent of the venereal peril and seem inclined to be incredulous when medical men reveal the facts.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS BY SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

I am sure that the evil is of sufficient importance to justify our thought on the matter. If there was general publicity and concerted action I am sure great good might be done. M.

This is a delicate matter. With young children it must be attended to by parents. The influence of societies must be to arouse parents as to the seriousness of the subject, rather than to reach the children directly. Discreet teachers may co-operate, and with the consent of parents may give the necessary instruction. With children in the upper grades and high school the topic should be treated in books on physiology and hygiene, in a simple, clear, direct, and authoritative way. These portions of the book need not be taken up in class, but it is certain that all children will read them. I have had fairly authoritative information that there is great prevalence of venereal disease among college students. N. H.

Teaching should be through elementary biology or nature-study. Have straightforward talks to the girls by wholesome lady teachers—to the boys by a strong, clean male teacher, and lectures by physicians. P.

I have no personal knowledge such as the inquiries suggest. B.

I think facts should be taught in connection with science at high-school age, orally. P.

I advise required biology for one year in all high schools; nothing else. I went to medical school two years and have had my eye on this ever since. Sex teaching by celibate men and women is absurd, childish, and impossible. The subject is for parents only. Children, I think, must not be given books to read alone. It induces masturbation. God knows things are bad enough, but America is not yet like Europe. W.

X I am sorry to say we do not teach these important facts. A.

The superintendent knows nothing wrong in this city and said he would not teach anything on the subject. E.

Great care is necessary to avoid aggravating the evil in the case of children and early youth. The high-school teacher in physiology can give instruction to adolescents better than anyone else. He approves the circulars of the State Health Department of Indiana and thinks they could be handed to high-school students after a talk by the teacher of physiology. He knows a few cases of scandal. K.

[To instruct children he knows of no way except by plain instruction by parents. In high school, botany, biology, and physiology are good means of teaching.] I am deeply interested in this study; we all need light on the subject. At present I think the whole subject of sexual hygiene is left to the home, where it is greatly neglected. In the high schools something should be done where the homes neglect the matter. The question is how and what. R.

✓ Instruction of children should be by parents in the home. Instruction of youth should be in the science work in the high school where sexes can be segregated. [He approves the books: *What a Boy Should Know* and *What a Girl Should Know*. The subject is best taught early by parents or teachers of segregated pupils.] A.

There are many suspicions floating around, but no accurate information. The outlook is to me as if much of this should be talked among parents; first at mothers' meetings and fathers' meetings to prepare them for such sex teaching as this circular suggests. I have not seen anything printed which I thought suitable to put in the hands of the young. G.

[He says that the subject is generally avoided by teachers and that he knows of no suitable publications for children and youth.] C.

In this city we have separate high schools for boys and girls. Some years ago a teacher of physiology, who was a graduate in medicine proposed to give talks to the boys on the use and abuse of the sexual organs. Before doing so he wrote to the parents of the boys asking permission and explaining what he proposed to do. His request was met with a storm of indignant protest and he was forced to abandon his effort. [This superintendent thinks that talks to the boys by the teacher who has the confidence of the pupils is the best method. For boys a male teacher—for girls a female teacher.] L.

I am glad you have taken this matter up. I hope you will learn that the scare-heads of the press are unwarranted. Certainly among high-school boys and girls in New England these evils are almost unknown. Some principals have lectured to pupils on this abuse. I doubt the value of such work. All the books are of very doubtful value, I fear they excite lust. H.

[Recommends talks to high-school boys by the principal of the school and to high-school girls by woman physicians and instructors in gymnasium.]

S.

In my opinion this work should reach the parents. The subject in the schools is attended by many and almost insuperable difficulties. The parent is the proper one to reveal these things to the children. F.

I do not know. I am deeply ignorant on all these matters. S.

[The superintendent has never known of a case of sexual immorality in his schools. The answers are based on considerable experience as high-school teacher and principal.] I am of the opinion that conditions are not so bad as many people attempt to show them. [He gives no suggestions for instruction, evidently thinking that none are necessary.] B.

Children ought to be looked after by parents. Wise teachers can give enough instruction. For children at the age of puberty hygienic instruction by occasional talks may be given. For youth more can be done than has yet been done, especially in connection with biology. We have had talks by physicians for boys. K.

About puberty instruction should be general and can be given by the parent or one in a similar relation. S.

Children are best taught by mothers, not teachers, by telling the stories, in a beautiful way before they get information in a gross way. Books should be used by parents or prescribed with the parents' consent. Do not try to get this done through schools; let parents and the churches deal with it. Would you want a teacher to talk about this matter with your boy or girl and in the presence of many others? Parents are getting to be more negligent and your efforts should be toward educating parents in the manner of presenting these important matters to their young. Parents must not abdicate their parenthood entirely to teachers. We are drifting too much that way. The *American Motherhood*, the *Ladies' Home Journal*, and other publications are fast educating mothers on this subject. W.

Instruction should be given by parents to children, especially by mothers to their daughters. Youth may be taught by lectures given to students, the girls and boys being in separate classes. I do not know any publications on

the subject that do not need some expurgating. Should be glad to know of any that do not need this. I believe morality the strongest element in appealing to students, that is those we are trying to teach, next comes healthy bodies connected with happiness. M.

Intelligent mothers can do more than all others. [He recommends the "Self and Sex Series."] A.

Children cannot be taught in the schools. Private talks are used for youth. In cases of later adolescence there is no occasion for calling special attention to it. I should avoid suggestive books. Have little knowledge, but have used a few talks in some cases. E.

We unfortunately give no instruction on sex questions. [As to books, replies: "Am not posted."] B.

I have had so little contact with such evils that I have given little study to this subject. Sorry not to be able to suggest even one book on the subject. W.

No doubt some of the evils mentioned here occur, but personally I have no knowledge of any of them. S.

No direct reference to such subject has been made in any systematic way. I am not familiar with the publications. D.

Your letter making inquiry in reference to certain diseases in our schools has been received. In reply I would say, that we do not get into contact with such cases as you describe. R.

The usual sex books are poor indeed. Talks by the right person at the right time may do good. I do not know of any ideal book; wish I did. The one I like best is Burt Wilder's *What Young People Ought To Know*. T.

On all these problems I am at sea. R.

EXTRACTS FROM LETTERS OF PHYSICIANS

In my private practice as a genito-urinary specialist I see very few cases of acute gonorrhoea. Boys and young men first go to a drug store or use some remedy suggested by a friend. Later they go to a general practitioner, and only the cases that they do not cure come to a specialist. I believe that boys and girls at the age of puberty should be carefully taught the anatomy or physiology of the sexual organs and the diseases that follow abuse or which may be contracted. I think this can best be done by talks illustrated by charts. I am much interested in the subject and have suggested such talks to some good people who think it ought to be

done, but will not take the responsibility of starting the matter. They would regard such things as not proper. W.

[Recommends segregation of prostitution and favors instruction. Thinks that boys should be taught by the father and girls by the mother under the direction of a physician.] The reading of properly prepared books of which I do not know any published entirely satisfactory. E.

In my opinion father and mother should not permit children to go anywhere after 8:00 or 9:00 P.M. After the fourteenth or fifteenth year parents should carefully explain sexual hygiene to their children. M.

[Recommends publications of the Social Purity League.] G.

[Recommends examination of the sanitary conditions of the houses of prostitution, because the prostitute is not as liable to be infected or to infect somebody else if she is clean and in good general health. Special attention should be paid to young girls who just start that kind of a life because their infections are worse and they attract more males. Forbid the owners of such houses to hire a physician to look after their girls. Recommends examination of children in schools and instruction of the mothers, because the mother needs instruction most and she stands nearest to her offspring.] B.

A WOMAN PHYSICIAN, HEAD OF AN IMPORTANT HOSPITAL

My practice is mostly in a maternity hospital and about 25 per cent of all cases handled have gonorrhoea either in acute or chronic state. We exclude acute cases when possible. We have at least half or more of married women from good respectable families nearly all unconscious of their malady.

My opinion on the regulation of prostitution is similar to the regulation of saloons. Get rid of them as early as possible by the education of the young as to their evil results. While they exist make them as unprofitable as possible by expensive fines and removals. A business that moves its location frequently loses trade. No regulation that is not seeking for an extermination of these things is worth considering.

Parents should be the first teachers of the young on sexual hygiene. It should come easily with the care of the body and the explanation made of the birth of babies and animals which they learn of in the course of family events. The teacher in school should take up the anatomy and physiology of reproduction as the child progresses at the twelfth or fourteenth year or even earlier when possible, by means of plants, etc. The high-school pupils should be taught something of venereal diseases by special lectures in separate classes and the story of human reproduction must be

made clear, and the young mind may be impressed as in a religious appeal. Each high school should have such an instructor and in large cities one speaker can instruct all of the schools, the parents first being asked to listen to the talk and after hearing it shall decide whether or not they wish their children to sit for it. All academies and young people's organizations should be presented with such a lecture. The consequences of improper sexual relations should in all instances be made known to pupils of the high-school age and hinted at in the presence of younger children. In giving the lecture to parents first, they will be instructed often where they would be left ignorant, if they had not heard the talk, of the very things which their children need to know in order to fear the consequences in loose associations. A stricter chaperonage of both boys and girls in the high-school age should be urged upon American parents. D.

[Thinks that prostitution should be under state supervision and segregation. Instruction should not be given to children in school or in groups, but by father and mother if the child is sensible, or by the family physician if the child is easily led or nervous.] I believe men should be as chaste as women and that this can be accomplished by education in respect to the moral obligation of high-school and college men.

The condition of things in a reform school for girls may be shown by this statement: Of 1,305 girls admitted since 1895, 363, or 27 per cent. were immoral, but not diseased; 47, or 3 per cent. had been mothers, when they were admitted; 92 or 7.4 per cent had syphilis, and 50 of these had gonorrhoea also; 777 were admitted with gonorrhoea (51.4 per cent.); approximately 58.7 per cent. had venereal diseases when admitted. W.

[Thinks that instruction should be given in the family by parent of the same sex as the child; and in school by special instruction of a physician in classes of one sex only.] B.

[Thinks that prostitutes should be licensed and inspected and kept in a "red-light" district. As to method of instruction thinks no one method will do for all. There are as many good methods as there are men and women in the world.] W.

I think a well-instructed mother should be the instructor of her children and the instruction should be given as early as the child mind expands and his curiosity is aroused. A.



CHAPTER I

SOCIAL LOSS FROM SEXUAL VICE. ECONOMIC ASPECTS

The notorious indifference and neglect of this subject by otherwise earnest and thoughtful people who desire the common welfare must be largely due to the general ignorance of the damage which the nation suffers from the various forms of sexual vice. The attitude of the unclean is easily explained; they are ready to sacrifice others and themselves to appetite and lust, and they become deaf to argument and appeal in consequence of the debasing influence of immoral indulgence and corrupting companionships. The present study seeks to present ascertained facts to a group of persons known to be devoted to public service and open to the influence of arguments drawn from careful and sober presentation of the real conditions. The volume is not intended for circulation except among mature and professional persons whose duties compel them to deal daily with young people who are exposed to temptation and peril. Plain speech, technical only when necessary, will be used throughout.

We have used well-authenticated sources, and the conclusions stated are drawn up, so far as possible, in the exact language of medical authorities in responsible positions, and the whole carefully revised by physicians competent to discern and correct error in language or interpretation.

It must be remembered that the contemporary judgments of competent physicians, specialists in the particular field, rest upon a wide observation of facts and are inductions from a vast experience, as well as from laboratory and clinical experimentation. These physicians of scientific training would be the last men to affirm that investigation is closed, that all is known, and that nothing remains for study. But for the laity the consensus of opinion of the medical men at a given time is the most accurate statement of the facts which is accessible to them. And it is remarkable that, on our present subject, there is practical unanimity in regard to the physical facts with which we have to deal, much as men differ in

regard to the more complicated and involved problems of social policy and methods of popular education.

This is not a medical work and no more details will be given than are absolutely necessary to make teachers aware of the nature, causes, and effects of the principal venereal diseases which, in the opinion of the greatest physicians, threaten the welfare of the race.

I. MEDICAL AUTHORITIES UPON THE NATURE OF THE SOCIAL DAMAGE FROM SEXUAL VICE

The chief physical evils arising from ignorant or wilful perversion of the sexual functions are those of masturbation, excessive indulgence of the sexual appetite even in marriage, and the venereal diseases caused primarily and principally by prostitution. Of the comparatively rare pathological and abnormal cases little need here be said; they are to be treated by physicians rather than by teachers. Yet sexual perverts are occasionally discovered, not only in reform schools but also in ordinary public schools, and it is exceedingly important that medical inspectors find them out before they corrupt normal children.¹

SECTION I. *Physical and psychical disturbances caused by masturbation*² and by excessive indulgence of the sexual appetite, even in normal marital relations.—Here also may be mentioned the danger of precocious indulgence and illegitimacy. (a) Self-abuse is the cause of disorders when it is frequently repeated and long continued. But false and exaggerated statements are frequently made current by quack doctors who become rich by advertising their nostrums after exciting the terror of youth. Medical authority can be cited for a sober and reliable description of the facts, although there is a wide range of variation due to individual differences in constitution, vitality, occupation, and temperament. (b) Excessive indulgence in sexual appetite, without exposure to venereal diseases, may lead to physical and mental disorders of a grave character, both in illicit intercourse and in marriage. We exclude illicit intercourse

¹ These inherited pathological conditions are discussed with authority by R. von. Krafft-Ebing, *Psychopathia Sexualis*, translated by F. J. Rebman from the 12th German ed.; Forel, *Die sexuelle Frage*; cf. G. F. Lydston, *The Diseases of Society*.

² Dr. H. A. Kelly, *Medical Gynecology*, pp. 291 ff.

from consideration as ethically rejected. The individual differences are so great that no rule can be laid down as to the measure of temperance in marital intercourse. Good sense in normal physical conditions is a fairly safe guide, and in morbid states of health a physician should be consulted.

Precocious sexual intercourse and illegitimacy.—The sexual appetite awakens with puberty, especially in boys; long before knowledge, experience, and reason provide the moral nature with motives for self-control and inhibition of impulse to gratification. The writer, as a member of the management of a refuge for young girls, is compelled to learn of frequent cases where the poor creatures become mothers without being aware of the dangers, miseries, and disgrace to which they expose themselves. It is incredible to a person reared wholly in a normal family life that there should be so many victims of ignorance and parental neglect. In a certain number of instances mothers deliberately corrupt their own daughters and hire them out to vice before conscience has emerged.³

SECTION 2. *Venereal diseases, especially gonorrhea and syphilis.*—It will be sufficient for our purpose to present medical authority in relation to the two most important and dangerous diseases which begin in the irregular and immoral relations of prostitution, but which are communicated also to innocent persons by various modes of contact. The two most distinctive of these diseases are gonorrhea and syphilis.

Dr. William Osler, in a recent article on preventive medicine, describing the infectious diseases which are the greatest scourges to the human race, such as cholera, yellow fever, smallpox, pneumonia, tuberculosis, leprosy, etc., says of the group of venereal diseases:

These are in one respect the worst of all we have to mention, for they are the only ones transmitted in full virulence to innocent children to fill their lives with suffering, and which involve equally innocent wives in the misery and shame. . . . Physicians and the public have each solemn duties in this matter.⁴

³ Antonio Marro, *La puberté*, chap. xxi.

⁴ Cf. Dr. Prince Morrow, in a pamphlet of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

Gonorrhea.⁵—The cause of gonorrhea is a micro-organism discovered by Neisser in 1879.

The modern period of our knowledge of gonorrhea dates from the discovery of the gonococcus. At the present day we recognize that the gonococcus is the sole pathogenic agent of gonorrhea in men and women, and that the source of the infection is in the immense majority of cases a chronic or latent gonorrhea.⁶

As to the effects of this disease we again quote from the same author (p. 83):

Instead of gonorrhea being limited to the genito-urinary tract, as was formerly supposed, its morbid action is now recognized as being much more extensive, not infrequently radiated to important visceral organs. As the result of modern investigations it may positively be affirmed that the gonococcus is susceptible of being taken up by the blood vessels and lymphatics and that it may affect almost every organ of the body. The premerential infection is directed to the serous structures of the body. Staining and culture experiments have demonstrated its presence not only in the ovaries, tubes, and peritoneal cavity, which it reaches through progressive invasion of the intermediate membranes, but also in the brain and cord, the endocardium, the pleura, the liver, spleen, kidneys, the joints and tendon sheaths, and periosteal, to which it is carried by the blood vessels and through the peripheral capillaries to the skin.

The number, variety, and gravity of these systemic localizations have led to the serious consideration of the question whether gonorrhea is not to be classed as a constitutional affection—whether these remote effects are to be considered as only occasional and exceptional metastatic complications, or whether there does not actually exist in all cases a latent infection which is only manifest by those systemic localizations in grave cases or in individuals specially predisposed.

As to the effects of gonorrhea on woman we quote from Morrow again (p. 172):

All observation shows that pregnancy is the worst thing that can happen to a woman suffering from cervical gonorrhea. It is equivalent to preparing the soil for the culture bed of dangerous seed which might not

⁵ We cite the important work of the distinguished physician, Dr. Prince Morrow, *Social Disease and Marriage* (1904). But several other important works have been consulted, among them *Medical Gynecology*, by Dr. H. A. Kelly (1908).

⁶ Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 85.

otherwise find conditions favorable for their germination and growth. If the woman becomes pregnant, it may terminate in abortion or premature accouchement. At best she will probably produce but one child, which is fated to undergo during its passage into the world inoculation with gonococci which may destroy the eyes, and with what consequences to the mother? We have seen that gonorrheal germs become multiplied and exalted in virulence by their cultivation in the lochial fluid. They rapidly invade the body of the uterus, ascend to the annexial organs, with all the consequences of salpingitis, oophoritis, peritonitis, etc. The essential condition of cure is that it should be seen in the early stage, before infection of the uterus and annexial organs takes place. When it reaches the appendages the general opinion is that it is incurable except by radical operation.

A German physician, Dr. Max Gruber, tells of a young woman known in his practice, who went on a wedding journey to Rome a blooming bride and returned broken and withered. The bridegroom had taken gonorrhea and infected her. The doctor adds in justifiable wrath, "a man who *consciously* acts like that is a damned monster." He adds:

But most men do not imagine that they are affected by gonorrhea, do not imagine that they are to blame when the wife quickly begins to grow ill and sink after marriage, and they believe they have had an invalid wife hung on their necks. The poor suffering woman must listen to reproaches and she grieves at heart that her sickness is a trouble to her dear spouse! How are such terrible misfortunes, such errors possible?"¹

The offspring of the mother who suffers from gonorrhea is frequently infected and caused to suffer. Who that is capable of remorse or pity would refuse to be turned away from sexual vice by such a description of fact as that given by physicians?

The child in its passage through the maternal parts is compelled to undergo a veritable baptism of virulence. In the course of its passage the face of the child, and especially the eyes, are liable to be soiled with the uterine, vaginal, and vulvar liquids containing gonococci. The opening of the eyes of the infant, occurring as a rule when the child comes into the world, permits the penetration of the secretions into the conjunctival sac. The gonococci find in the delicate mucosa of the eyes a favorable soil for inoculation. . . . After birth the infectious secretion may be carried into the eyes through the intermediary of sponges, wash-cloths, or by the fingers

¹ *Die Prostitution vom Standpunkte der Sozialhygiene aus betrachtet*, Vienna, 1905.

of the accoucheur or nurse. When one eye remains uninfected, it may be inoculated with the purulent secretion of the other.

It is estimated that from 10 to 30 per cent. of all blindness is caused by gonorrheic infection. Of all causes of blindness, purulent conjunctivitis is the most powerful factor. According to Neisser there are in Germany at the present time 30,000 blind persons whose loss of sight is due to gonorrheal ophthalmia. In many institutions for the blind no fewer than 60 per cent. of the inmates have lost their sight from gonorrheal infection. In the institutions of Paris the percentage is estimated at 46, Jullien says 80 per cent.; in Switzerland, 20; in Breslau, 13; in this country, from 25 to 50.

As to frequency of occurrence Morrow (p. 112) declares:

In the report of the Committee of Seven, which records 1,941 cases of gonorrhea in women occurring in private practice in this city [New York] in one year, there were found 265 children with purulent ophthalmia. In the same year there were found in one of the eye hospitals of this city 136 cases of purulent ophthalmia.

Various mitigating and preventive means are known and used by physicians, antiseptic washes, treatment of the eyes (Credé method) of the infant; yet even now many children suffer blindness from maternal infection. "At the present day in Germany gonorrhea causes each year about 600 cases of blindness in the newborn."

The dangers of purulent conjunctivitis from maternal infection are not limited to the child. Nothing is more infectious than ophthalmia neonatorum. It often happens that the attendants, the nurse, or the members of the family are infected, and it is to be observed that while the infection may be comparatively benign in the infant and yield readily to the Credé method, with complete conservation of the integrity of the sight, the infection transmitted to the attendants most often results in a virulent inflammation which may entirely destroy the eyes.*

Further, we must consider the dangers of contact and diffusion of this dread disease even among the innocent.

The virus of gonorrhea may be transferred by means of any indifferent object upon which it has been deposited and inoculated when brought into contact with a mucous surface susceptible to its action.

Numerous well-authenticated cases of water-closet infection have been recorded. Rossolimos cites cases in which it was derived from the night-vase, towels, etc.*

* Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 116.

* *Ibid.*

Douches, tubes, fingers, thermometers, towels, sponges may be the medium of transmitting the virus. One of these classes of contagion is called from its localization "vulvovaginitis." The innocent victims of this form of contagion are usually children from two to six years of age. It may be present in the newborn or at any age below puberty. In the report of the Committee of Seven there were found 218 cases of vulvovaginitis in private practice in New York City among 1,941 cases of gonorrhea in women.

It [vulvovaginitis] has been found in hospitals for children to be one of the most insidious and persistent infections, and one of the most difficult to stamp out, with which physicians have to deal.¹⁰

This statement is confirmed by facts furnished the writer by Dr. W. A. Evans, Commissioner of Health of the city of Chicago. The public bath may be the medium of communication. Various diseases and disorders may be caused by this form of the malady.

In respect to the cure of gonorrhea, it is very important for the moral teacher to avoid all statements which are not confirmed by experience and by medical authority. The plain, unvarnished truth is most effective, and the educator who, for the sake of frightening his pupil from evil ways, resorts to falsehoods or even questionable assertions, loses his influence. For these reasons it seems wise to set down here the conclusions of experts in respect to the curability of this most common of venereal diseases.

Taking the experience of the leading genito-urinary specialists in this country and Europe as developed by the results of the investigations of the Committee of the American Medical Association, six months may be accepted as the average duration of treatment of chronic gonorrhea.¹¹

The *methods of cure* do not belong here; that subject is in the hands of the medical adviser who should always be consulted and his counsels faithfully followed. Quacks should be avoided.

The widely prevalent notion that gonorrhea is a trivial disease, not more serious than an ordinary cold, cannot be too strongly combated. Every young man and woman should know its serious character and terrible possibilities, and the vital importance of consulting a reputable physician at the earliest possible moment after gonorrheal infection is suspected.¹²

¹⁰ Dr. J. M. Dodson.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹² Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 86.

This judgment of a distinguished physician has been enforced and emphasized by numerous other medical men who have been consulted in the preparation of this chapter.

Gonorrhea frequently unfits a young man for marriage and makes him a plague and a curse to wife and children. This is evidently a serious part of our problem. The danger of communicating a dreadful and destroying disease to an innocent bride is appalling to any man who has any sense of honor, moral responsibility, or religion remaining in him. Physicians insist upon extreme caution. Gonorrhea is sometimes cured, but the gonococci may survive in the system long after the cure seems to be complete. Morrow quotes the authority of Janet:

I would demand an entire year without secondary infection. Even at the risk of being called a pessimist, I would impose this delay upon gonorrheics. The enormous number of matrimonial uterine affections shows that heretofore we have been too indulgent in this regard. Metritis, salpingitis, and grave operations are the future of these unfortunate wives who had hoped to find happiness in marriage. It is time to react, to consider gonorrhea as at least equal to syphilis from the point of view of conjugal relations.

A quotation from Jullien (*Blennorrhagie et mariage*, cited by Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 169) is apt:

When the responsibilities are well examined it is often to the negligence or ignorance of the doctor they must be ascribed. If he has made an insufficient examination, if he has been satisfied with a rapid inspection, or if deceived by false traditions, he has advised marriage in order to cure the gleet, he alone is guilty. To tabulate all the calamities which follow this fatal carelessness would be to write the endless martyrology of marriage, the saddest page I know.

Most authorities maintain that the disease may be eradicated by persistent treatment conducted over a long period of time. Every individual who has once had gonorrhea should be assumed to be infected until the contrary has been proved. . . . The poor, half-cured victims of gonococcus infection are a menace to the community and a stain on the fair name of the medical profession."

One branch of this investigation has special interest for all

"Dr. H. A. Kelly, *Medical Gynecology*, pp. 362, 373.

teachers, especially to those who give instruction in special classes and schools for the blind.¹⁴

REPORTS FROM SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND, 1907

Schools for the Blind	No. of New Admissions	No. Blind from Oph. Neonatorum	Percentage
New York State School for the Blind.....	13	4	30.7
Penn. Inst. for the Blind, Overbrook, Pa.....	27	9	33.33
Institute for the Blind, Austin, Tex.....	(Not definite—about 10.)		
Perkins Institute and Mass. School for the Blind.....	43	13	30.00
Colorado School for the Blind, Colorado Springs.....	7	3	42.8
Western Penn. Inst. for Blind, Pittsburg, Pa., (Percentage of total number in school, 31.37.).....	28	8	28.57
Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis.....	19	6	31.57
State Board of Education for the Blind, Hartford, Conn., (since creation of board in 1893, 34.74.).....	8	1	12.50
State School for the Blind, Columbus, Ohio (Reduction of usual percentage and as low as at any time in last 12 years).....	61	6	9.83
Maryland School for the Blind (percentage of total number in school in 1905, 25.50).....	13	4	30.77
Ontario Inst. for Blind, Brantford, Ont. (Percentage of total number in school, 24.7).....	23	5	21.74

The average then of the new admissions in the fall of 1907 to the ten schools in which exact records were kept and representing eight states and the province of Ontario was 25.21 per cent., or one-quarter of the whole number, needlessly blind.

That these are not unusual results is shown by the following report from the Pennsylvania School for the Blind for the past eight years.

Per cent.	Per cent.
1900..... 11 out of 25 = 44	1904..... 15 out of 56 = 25.00
1901..... 10 out of 26 = 35	1905..... 21 out of 42 = 50.00
1902..... 9 out of 39 = 23	1906..... 12 out of 38 = 31.00
1903..... 14 out of 50 = 28	1907..... 9 out of 27 = 33.33

The average percentage of these eight years is 33.36 per cent. of the whole number admitted. As this enormously high proportion of blindness due to ophthalmia neonatorum is found in states maintaining the highest standards of medical education and general sanitation, there is no doubt whatever that when exact statistics can be obtained at least as large a percentage due to this cause will be found elsewhere throughout the country.

Widespread knowledge concerning ophthalmia neonatorum and its dangers is of vital social importance. Helen Keller voices a very proper public sentiment when she says:

"The problem of prevention should be dealt with frankly. Physicians

¹⁴ See "Report of the Committee on Ophthalmia Neonatorum," *Journal of the American Medical Association*, May 23, 1908, Vol. I, pp. 1745-49 (Dr. F. Park Lewis, Chairman).

should take pains to disseminate knowledge needful for a clear understanding of the causes of blindness. The time for hinting at unpleasant truths is past. Let us insist that the states put into practice every known and approved method of prevention and that physicians and teachers open wide the doors of knowledge for the people to enter in. The facts are not agreeable reading. Often they are revolting. But it is better that our sensibilities should be shocked than that we should be ignorant of facts on which rest sight, hearing, intelligence, morals, and the life of the children of men. Let us do our best to rend the thick curtain with which society is hiding its eyes from the unpleasant but needful truths.

Syphilis.—We must tread this *via dolorosa* still further in the interest of truth and humanity, and add a brief account of another pest of mankind, slayer of multitudes, itself primarily the issue of immorality. The source of this disease is a micro-organism, and the malady arises primarily from sexual intercourse with prostitutes, although it is also communicated to innocent persons. Let us mass our evidence in relation to the causes and effects of this disease of vice.

While syphilis is a less prevalent disease than gonorrhea, it is much more prolific in sources and modes of contagion, and, in addition, is *susceptible of hereditary transmission*. When syphilis is introduced into marriage it may become the origin of many innocent infections. Not only the wife and the children may be contaminated, but the syphilitic infant may infect the nurse or other members of the family, and the nurse may in turn infect her husband and her own children. Veritable epidemics of syphilis have originated in this way. It is this quality of expansiveness, this capacity of morbid irradiation through family and social life, that gives to syphilis its superior significance as a social danger.¹³

Syphilis sterilizes and so defeats the social purpose of marriage.

The function of marriage is to create life; the action of syphilis is to damage or destroy life. While syphilis may not materially affect the capacity for sexual intercourse nor impair the power of procreation, it renders the one dangerous by infection, the other deadly through inheritance.

Even when syphilis does not destroy the product of conception it transmits to the offspring a defective organization—the infant comes into the world a blighted being, lacking in development and physical stamina and stamped with inferiority. Syphilis is thus not only a factor of depopulation, but a cause of degeneration of the race.

¹³ Morrow, *op. cit.*, pp. 181, ff.

Now, syphilis introduced into marriage often strikes the death knell of such hopes; it is destructive of the mutual love and esteem which should form the basis of marriage. Syphilis distils a double venom; it poisons not only the health but the happiness of the household. It carries in its train not only physical woes, but social misery; often disunion and divorce.

What husband can hope to retain the love and esteem of the wife whom he has dishonored with a shameful disease; of the mother in whose child he has infused the foul taint of the prostitute, which dies before being born, or comes into the world an object of disgust and horror? If he be a man of conscience and sensibility, what remorse he must suffer from his sense of guilty responsibility for the ruin he has wrought!

These pathological consequences and the social miseries they engender are by no means exceptional or uncommon. They are the natural expression of the disease, the sequence of cause and effect, almost inevitable under the conditions created by the marriage relation. Their frequency is far from being appreciated by the laity or even the general medical practitioner. Syphilis wears the protective mantle of shame, of secrecy, and silence, and its ravages, physical as well as social, are concealed from the public view.¹⁴

The conclusions of a long and technical argument, fortified by citations from the highest European and American medical authorities are thus summarized by Dr. Morrow:

RÉSUMÉ AND CONCLUSIONS (IN RESPECT TO SYPHILIS)

From this study of premarital syphilis the following conclusions may be formulated:

1. The two qualities of syphilis which emphasize its important relations with marriage are its contagiousness and susceptibility of hereditary transmission.
2. These qualities are not impressed upon the syphilitic organism indefinitely; as syphilis advances in its evolution the virulent principle gradually becomes extinguished.
3. Specific treatment also exerts a marked attenuating and corrective influence upon the diathesis.
4. Syphilis does not therefore constitute an absolute permanent obstacle to marriage; it is only a temporary bar which may be removed by time and treatment.
5. The decision of the question of the admissibility to marriage of a man with syphilis or with syphilitic antecedents imposes a grave responsibility upon the physician.
6. The physician should consider the proposed marriage solely as a sani-

¹⁴ Morrow, *op. cit.*, pp. 182, 183.

tary problem, the only correct solution of which is that the man should not marry so long as he is capable of infecting his wife or transmitting his disease to his children.

7. The elements which serve for the determination of this question are based partly upon our knowledge of the pathological laws of the disease and largely upon the results of clinical experience.

8. The division of syphilis into secondary and tertiary periods, or that based upon anatomical forms and processes, does not furnish a safe criterion for determining the contagious or non-contagious character of the lesions.

9. The chronological completion of the secondary stage does not always mark the definite disappearance of the virulent principle; clinical experience shows that the late lesion may be exceptionally, but none the less certainly, the source of contagion.

10. The precise date in the evolution of the diathesis when the syphilitic organism undergoes that radical transformation which marks the limit of its contagious or transmissive power does not admit of mathematical expression.

11. It is probable that this limit varies in different cases and that many circumstances contribute to advance or defer it.

12. The type of the disease, the constitutional peculiarities of the patient, the presence or absence of certain conditions which are recognized as factors of gravity in syphilis, the treatment employed, all exert a modifying influence.

13. All these elements should be taken into consideration in deciding upon the admissibility of a syphilitic man to marriage; each case should be studied upon its individual merits.

14. The advanced age of the diathesis, a prolonged immunity from specific accidents and sufficient specific treatment are the surest guarantees of safety.

15. The arbitrary designation of a period of three or even four years as perfectly safe for a syphilitic man to marry, with or without treatment, and irrespective of the character of the diathesis is unwarranted by science or the teachings of experience.

16. While in the immense majority of cases the contagious activity of syphilis and its hereditary transmissibility cease after the third or fourth year, yet well-authenticated observations prove in the most positive manner that these qualities sometimes continue much longer, and may be manifest in the fifth or sixth year of the disease, and even later.

17. The aptitude of syphilitic parents to procreate diseased children may persist after the cessation of all specific manifestations; the contagious state

of syphilis is not, therefore, the exact measure of the duration of hereditary influence; this is especially true of maternal heredity.

18. The curative influence of specific treatment in causing to disappear the organic lesions as well as the functional disorders created by the syphilitic virus is well established.

19. While the preventive action of specific treatment is less pronounced than its curative action, it is hardly conceivable that a treatment which exhibits such incontestable virtue in causing the accidents of syphilis to disappear should not be capable of dominating and destroying the diathesis, if sufficiently prolonged.

20. The value of specific treatment in suppressing, holding in obedience, and finally correcting the hereditary influence of syphilis may be accepted as well established by clinical experience.

21. Clinical observation shows that when there is a cessation of all specific manifestations after the completion of the secondary stage, and this exemption is prolonged during a period of twelve or eighteen months, they are not liable to recur.

22. When the syphilitic diathesis has been subjected to the double depurative action of time and treatment during a period of four years, in the vast majority of cases it is scientifically safe for the syphilitic to marry.

23. This rule is based upon a calculation of probabilities. Medical certainty is not mathematical certainty, and a longer period of delay would afford additional guarantees of safety to the wife and prospective children.

24. In deciding upon the fitness of a syphilitic man for marriage the risks to the personal health of the prospective husband from his disease should always be considered.

25. A menacing character of the diathesis, and especially the existence and history of certain symptoms which point to the implication of the brain, nervous system, or other important organs constitute an express, permanent contraindication to marriage."

To fortify the argument further the words of Dr. H. A. Kelly may here be cited and reference is made to his discussion:

Two fundamental characters, contagiousness and susceptibility of hereditary transmission, give to syphilis an altogether special importance in relation to marriage. . . . In addition, hereditary syphilis undoubtedly creates a terrain or soil favorable for the reception and germination of tubercle bacilli and perhaps other bacilli. It does this by impoverishing the organism and diminishing the capacity of resistance against microbic invasion.

Syphilis is the only disease transmitted in full virulence to the off-

"Morrow, *op. cit.*, p. 258.

spring, killing them outright or blighting their normal development. From the view-point of race perpetuation syphilis is antagonistic to all that the family represents in our social system. The social aim of marriage is not simply the procreation of children, but of children born in conditions of vitality, health, and physical vigor. The effect of syphilis is so to vitiate the procreative process as to produce abortions, or else a race of inferior beings, endowed with defects and infirmities and unfit for the struggle of life. It is this pernicious effect of syphilis upon the offspring which gives to the disease a dominant influence as a factor in the degeneration and depopulation of the race.

Apart from its hereditary risks, the important relations of syphilis with marriage are emphasized by its quality of contagiousness. Owing to its multitudinous modes of contagion, syphilis, introduced into marriage, often becomes the origin of numerous innocent infections which are communicated in the ordinary relations of family and social life. . . . Even after the dangers of syphilis, from the standpoint of its contagiousness and transmissibility by inheritance, have been silenced by time and treatment, a syphilitic man may be incapacitated for marriage by reason of his personal risks from the disease. Unfortunately, syphilis often yields a late harvest of tabes, general paralysis, and other lesions of the general nervous system—affections for the most part disabling and incurable—which may ruin the patient's health and entirely incapacitate him for the responsible position of the head and support of a family. The existence of such conditions constitutes an express permanent contraindication to marriage.¹⁸

It is the fixed purpose of the author of this volume, as a layman, to set down no fact which does not come directly from a competent medical man of high standing. The illustrations which follow are simply a reprint of Circular No. 3, on "Family Protection," prepared by Dr. W. T. Belfield, secretary of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene, and an eminent authority in this field.¹⁹ The cases were furnished him by several physicians. It requires no comment. Its laconic brevity brings out the tragedies implied without waste of words, and it fortifies the statements already made.

The first step toward such protection is general enlightenment as to the *actual frequency of such tragedies* among the newly married. To this end the medical members of this society were requested to furnish instances of such disasters which they had personally observed. Only a few of the

¹⁸ *Medical Gynecology*, pp. 419 ff.

¹⁹ See also his *Man and Woman*, p. 87.

many responses can be summarized in this leaflet. These illustrate the most frequent tragedies resulting from the contamination of the family through venereal disease, namely:

- a) The loss of motherhood, even of life itself.
- b) The mutilation of the wife by surgery to preserve her life.
- c) The loss of eyesight in the new-born infant.
- d) The loss of pecuniary support through the disability of the husband.

1. A girl twenty-two years old married a man of twenty-six. About a month after the wedding the bride was confined to her bed for several days with severe pains in the pelvic region, accompanied with fever (peritonitis); and she remained a semi-invalid from that time. On her return from their European trip five months later she was brought to me for examination. The cause of her illness was found in a gonorrhoeal abscess of each fallopian tube, which rendered her an invalid as well as sterile. Careful treatment produced but slight improvement. Finally a surgical operation was performed and the tubes removed. This greatly improved her health though she is, of course, permanently barren. The husband admitted that he had twice contracted a mild gonorrhoea while at college years before, but considered himself cured. Examination revealed the germs of this disease in him.

2. A bride eighteen years old came to my office with her mother two weeks after her wedding. She was suffering from newly acquired gonorrhoea. After eight weeks of constant treatment, she was apparently well. Her husband had lived "like other men."

3. Several years ago there came under my care a case that I can never forget. The patient was a bride twenty-two years old, a beautiful woman of excellent family. She was suffering from gonorrhoea contracted from her husband, who had supposed himself cured before the wedding. An operation, which offered the only chance of saving her life, was performed. All went well for a few days. Her husband, who had been constantly with her, was called away on urgent business. The patient suddenly became worse and died before his return.

4. A man with gonorrhoea of fifteen months' duration, applied for treatment with the request to cure him in six weeks, as he was bound to get married at the end of that time. After examination the patient was warned that he could hardly expect to be cured by that time. At the end of six weeks permission to marry was refused. The patient disobeyed and married the heiress to a considerable estate. She became contaminated with his disease. Five months after the wedding she was taken to a hospital, operated upon for gonorrhoeal abscess, and died two days after the operation.

5. I am, at present attending the bride of a young man who thought he had recovered before his wedding from an attack of gonorrhoea. The young wife has gonorrhoeal peritonitis. She will doubtless recover but is probably permanently sterile.

6. A family consists of a father, mother, and three children; the father is a mechanic, works at night and sleeps during the day. At night the mother and children occupy his bed without changing the bedding. The father contracts gonorrhoea, a druggist prescribes for him on his way home from work. In a few days the baby develops gonorrhoeal inflammation in both eyes, and a girl of six shows the disease in the sexual organs. Both children became infected from the bed polluted by the father.

7. A married man while intoxicated contracted gonorrhoea. His little daughter seven years old, who slept in the same bed with him, developed the disease in both eyes. Careful treatment fortunately saved her eyesight.

8. A young bride was infected with gonorrhoea by her husband, who supposed himself cured before marriage. When her baby came its eyes were infected; and it was saved from total blindness only by most painstaking care by himself and a trained nurse, covering a period of three or four anxious weeks. During the treatment of the little one's eyes, in spite of care and warning, the mother's breast became infected, causing a painful and tedious abscess.

In another case, also of gonorrhoeal inflammation of the young mother, the babe's eyes were infected; within two weeks both were lost, and the child is totally blind. I am sure that the majority of these cases are due to lack of knowledge on the part of the husband, who is not told that the disease may lurk in his deeper parts long after it is outwardly cured.

9. We have in the children's department of the County Hospital numerous cases of gonorrhoea among the children, especially the little girls. The increase of this disease in our children's department has been alarming during the last two years, and we are sometimes unable to trace the source of infection.

10. I believe it very conservative to state that I see each week two cases of gonorrhoea in newly married women, the illness dating from marriage.

11. E. had been most carefully reared coming of ministerial stock for generations past; a young man to whom she had been engaged for three years betrayed her. She came to us two months before her child was born and had never shown any signs of syphilis. The little one, however, was diseased when born, suffered greatly during the four short months of its life, and then died, its little body gradually becoming decayed from the time of its birth.

12. The most pitiful case of inherited syphilis I have known is a girl of eighteen who is just learning to spell "cat" and "dog." Her growth has been stunted and her vision practically destroyed by this inherited disease; and though she has been helped by proper treatment she will always be a loser in the fight of life.

I know two childless women both of whom are disabled because of gonorrhoea contracted from their husbands. One of the men shares the grief of his wife because of the semi-invalidism that he has forced upon her.

13. A young wife gave birth to her first child, a credit to the parents. During her invalidism the husband met a former sweetheart, contracted syphilis from her, and before he became aware of his own infection, contaminated his wife. She developed syphilitic sores in the mouth, and through her kisses infected the child with the disease contracted from her husband.

14. A young man married two years after he had contracted syphilis. Within a year his wife had a spontaneous miscarriage, her child having been destroyed by the taint inherited from the father. A year later she gave birth to a puny child which bore the marks of the same disease.

Soon after the birth of this child the father, who had apparently enjoyed good health, awoke one morning to find his right arm and leg completely paralyzed and his ability to utter words abolished, his paralysis resulting from syphilitic disease of the blood vessels in the brain. He gradually regained his power of speech, and the use of his paralyzed limbs, though unable to earn a living for over a year. During this time the family was dependent for subsistence upon the charity of relatives. He will probably have more trouble from the same cause.

15. A young man who was on kissing terms with several girls, acquired syphilis. Though warned that he could communicate the disease by a kiss, he failed to resist temptation, and implanted the disease on the lip of each of two girls of good family.

16. Six years after acquiring syphilis, during which time he had married and begotten a child, a young man developed locomotor ataxia. The physical and mental disability thereby entailed caused the loss of a good position and bright business prospects; and the present financial outlook for his family is discouraging.

The *majority* of cases of venereal disease acquired before marriage fortunately do not entail such disasters to wives and children. Instances like those just related constitute the exceptions rather than the rule; nevertheless, of the 60,000 blind people in this country, at least 12,000 lost their eyesight at birth through infection of the eyes with the venereal

diseases of the parents. The cases of surgical mutilation and of permanent invalidism of wives; of the barrenness of marriage; of infant mortality before and after birth; of destitution through disease of the brain and nervous system in the family bread-winner—all these also are appallingly frequent results of venereal contamination.

It is therefore apparent that no man who has ever acquired venereal disease should marry until he has secured the assurance of a competent physician that such disease has been eradicated. The difference between an apparent cure and a real cure can be determined only through expert medical examination.

It is equally apparent that the disasters to self, prospective bride, and children which are entailed by the venereal diseases, constitute a risk which no intelligent man should take merely to enjoy the animal pleasures of promiscuous cohabitation—pleasures which are no more necessary to bodily health than are the joys of drunkenness.²⁰

The illustrations of these evil consequences might be multiplied indefinitely, and physicians in almost any large town or city can furnish only too many examples in local experience.

Is prostitution necessary to the protection of good women against the assaults of men?—The facts already presented reveal one aspect of the danger to which upright women, who are the vast majority of all women, are exposed in consequence of the existence of the "social evil." Is there any countervailing advantage to them to set over against the demonstrated perils and sufferings? Does not every prostitute by her very presence excite the sexual passion of many boys and men? Does she not win her bread by tempting youth? Is she not driven by the pangs of hunger to invent arts for breaking down moral restraints and the inhibitions of reason? How can the trade of the harlot protect purity? An article on "Education and the Social Evil" by Dr. A. W. Sterling of Atlanta, is summarized in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, April 18, 1908, p. 1306:

Sterling discusses this subject and arrives at the conclusion that continence and pure monogamy are the western ideals. The assertion that prostitution has always existed and always will exist—is, in short, a necessary evil—he answers by pointing out that those who advance this view

²⁰ That venereal diseases inflict injury on innocent wives and children may be seen in L. Duncan Bulkley, A.M., M.D., *Syphilis in the Innocent*, Bailey and Fairchild, New York.

would be as quick as their neighbors to resent the idea that any of their own people should embark in this necessary, and, according to themselves, saving profession. . . . Prostitution, if necessary, cannot be immoral, because it stands to reason that no necessary position in life is immoral. . . . If it is not necessary, enough has been said to show that its effects are so destructive, physically and morally, that it is high time something is done to demolish it.

If we legalize this infamous business, where shall we look to recruit the ever-fading ranks of these poor creatures as they die yearly by the tens of thousands? Which of the little girls of our land shall we designate for this traffic? Mark their sweet innocence today as they run about in our streets and parks, prattling and playing, ever busy about nothing, and earth's only memento of the angels in their guilelessness. Which of them shall we snatch as they approach maturity to supply the foul mart of the insatiable cravings of lust? Perish the thought! Again, we surely would not allow the daughters of our rich men to enter our legalized brothels. The poor man must suffer and be robbed of the flower of his family—the poor man who, Jacob Riis tells us, has no appeal beyond the policeman, and practically no rights in our courts. Sherman said "War is hell," but war is a sweet, a noble, and a choice calling compared with a life in this pit of iniquity. The only way out of the difficulty is to assert that the young girls naturally love this debauched life; but before I believe that you will have to rob me of my experience with women who, for the most part, began by being seduced.—Dr. H. A. Kelly.

Prostitution cannot be called necessary or harmless.

I must confess that I regard masturbation itself far a lesser evil, dangerous and harmful as it is for youth and in excess also for adults. At most it harms only the sinner himself, while those who use prostitution bear also the blame of helping the physical ruin of thousands of unhappy women who are driven into incurable invalidism and early death. For almost all professional prostitutes are gonorrheic and syphilitic, and, even apart from that, most of them by their irregular mode of life, abuse of alcohol, and residence in prison are gradually ruined. In England, according to Tait, prostitutes reach on the average only twenty-five years of age.²²

"*The sexual necessity.*"—A related question, on which there is considerable difference of opinion among physicians, is whether sexual intercourse is generally necessary to health. What is true

²² Dr. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution vom Standpunkte der Sozialhygiene aus betrachtet*, p. 30.

in this matter and what, therefore, should be the attitude of teachers and counselors of youth on this subject? That sexual intercourse is, for adults, normally desirable from the standpoint of individual health as well as for the existence and welfare of society may be at once frankly asserted. Celibacy could not be the regular mode of life for adults, and marriage at a suitable age may be regarded as best physically and spiritually for the vast majority of healthy people. But this does not mean that sexual intercourse is necessary, as breathing and eating are necessary to life; nor is it fatal and inevitable as gravity, or as the involuntary movements of the heart muscles or the rhythmic secretion of the various glands of the body. Nature has provided a harmless outlet for the secretions of the reproductive system without either masturbation or illicit sexual intercourse.²² The intercourse of the sexes is, apart from the pathological cases of the insane and idiotic, a voluntary act. Alcohol temporarily induces a pathological state when the control of reason and will is broken.

That both men and women can abstain without serious injury to health is demonstrated by numerous examples and by the testimony of competent physicians; and this testimony is so strong that it leaves the arguments addressed to appetite rather than reason and conscience without a foundation.

The same position is taken by the following competent medical authorities: Dr. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution*, pp. 41, 42, and *Hygiene des Geschlechtslebens*; Hegar, *Der Geschlechtstrieb*; Dr. W. S. Hall, *Reproduction*; Dr. W. T. Belfield, *The Sexual Necessity*; Robert N. Wilson, *The Social Evil in University Life*. Dr. G. F. Lydston (*The Diseases of Society*, p. 331) has a terrible arraignment of this notion of "sexual necessity" in his parable the "Lie of the Wild Oats," and he concludes: "Are not the wild oats of yesterday watered with the tears of today? . . . Wherever immorality, vice, disease, crime, drunkenness, and insanity most thrive, there, if we dig down to the very roots of these evils, we find wild oats the thickest." Here speaks a man who recites facts

²² The seminal emissions which occur at intervals of from a few days to a few weeks, usually during sleep, in healthy continent men, are entirely normal and physiologic, and not evidence of "failing manhood" or "loss of virility," as is blatantly and falsely stated by the advertising quack.—Dr. J. M. Dodson.

from his consulting-room; he knows; no wonder he is sometimes cynical in tone.

II. ECONOMIC LOSS AND WASTE FROM SEXUAL EXCESS AND DISEASE

It is impossible to secure statistical measurements of the extent and material consequences of the social evil in all its forms; but the facts already exhibited carry with them direct proof that economic loss or ruin follows in its wake.

The wage-earning power of working people depends on their industrial efficiency, and this efficiency is impaired by any habits or diseases which lower vitality, shorten life, or hinder the normal growth of a healthy population. Many of the feeble-minded, insane, blind, and deaf which have become a heavy burden upon the finances of modern states have fallen into a state of dependence through inheritance of the effects of vicious indulgence and venereal disease in their parents and more remote ancestors.

The cost of medical treatment by physicians, hospitals, and unscrupulous "specialists" must be enormous. To our national shame be it said, much of this expenditure goes to paid advertisements of the lowest type of doctors in newspapers which are taken into respectable families and supported by the advertisements of great merchants.

Some idea of the economic loss from venereal diseases may be gained by using such statistics as we have. In the Prussian-German army during the years 1873-93 the average annual sickness from these causes was 33.2 per cent. of the active soldiery; in the French army of 1883-93, 43.6 per cent. to 58.9 per cent.; in the army of Austria-Hungary in the period 1869-93, 53.0 per cent. to 81.4 per cent.; in the Italian army 1883-93, 79 per cent. to 104 per cent. In the German navy there were sick in the years 1875-76 to 1888-89, on the average, 127.9 per cent. In the English army it was worse, and in the Dutch army, the ratios rising to 224.5 and 294.1 per cent. If we take all the European armies together we may say that each day seventy to eighty thousand soldiers are treated for venereal diseases and more or less unfitted for duty. What a loss to the power of an army or navy this implies! In the civil population it is bad enough. Only a part of those affected enter hospitals, yet the figures for these are startling enough. In

Prussian hospitals in 1877-99 about 240,000 persons, or 58 per cent. of all patients were treated for venereal disorders. In more northern lands, because greater care is taken, a larger ratio obtains: in Norway in 1859-70 annually 0.86 per cent of the entire population, in Sweden 1.24 per cent., in Denmark 2.03 per cent., in Finland 2.27 per cent. An official inquiry in Prussia, answered by only 63 per cent. of the physicians, showed that on one day, April 30, 1900, about 41,000 persons were treated. It is thought that in all Germany 100,000 were under care of physicians that day. Kirchner estimated the economic loss to Prussia alone from this cause at 90,000,000 marks annually.

In the great cities the situation is worse. In Christiania the average sick in 1859-70 were 7.66 per cent. of population; in Stockholm, 16.04 per cent; in Copenhagen, 25.5 per cent. In Russia where these maladies are rife, it is estimated that 13 to 23 per cent of the population is infected and in some provinces almost all are syphilitic.

In Berlin the number of new cases of syphilis is estimated to be 5,000 each year, in Paris 8,000 to 10,000. On April 30, 1900, the cases of venereal patients reported by physicians were 10 per cent. of the entire population of Berlin. In Copenhagen, where the records are unusually complete, the number of new cases of gonorrhea reported annually is 56,000, or about one-half the population.

Of 8,500,000 persons insured in the sickness funds of Germany 6 per cent., or more than 500,000 are annually afflicted with venereal diseases. In Berlin 3.6 per cent. of the soldiers, 8 per cent. of workmen, 13.5 per cent. of female waiters, 16.4 per cent. of young salesmen, and 25 *per cent. of students* in the sickness insurance associations were treated for venereal diseases.²²

The frequency of venereal diseases varies with nations, with districts, and especially, with density of population. For example, in Germany, these diseases are more frequent in northern than in southern districts; more prevalent in the northeast than in the west, in cities, than in rural regions. Of the male population of Prussia on April 30, 1900, 28 in 1,000 were infected; in Berlin 142 in 1,000; in cities with over 100,000 inhabitants, 100 in 1,000; in

²² From Dr. Max Gruber, *op. cit.*

cities of over 30,000 inhabitants, 45 in 1,000; in the army, 15 in 1,000. The frequency of these maladies varies also with the social classes. Thus in Berlin, of soldiers in the garrison, 4 to 5 per cent. are annually affected; of wage earners in the central sickness insurance association, 8 per cent.; of female waiters registered in the local sickness insurance association 13.5 per cent.; but the police records show 30 per cent. of same class; salesmen 16.5 per cent.; *students in the sickness insurance association 25 per cent.* The figures for students reveal a very discouraging condition.

Of 12,000,000 persons in the German workingmen's insurance associations about 6 per cent., or 750,000 persons require medical treatment and hospital care at an annual cost of at least six to seven million marks (about \$1,500,000 to \$1,750,000). To this loss must be added the loss of wages and productive labor caused by sickness, weakness, and the physical consequences of the attacks.²⁴

Economic loss implies diminution of the opportunities of culture; and so venereal excesses and diseases both directly and indirectly affect adversely the educational process.

No less than 344 persons were admitted, on an average, for each of the four years, to the asylums in England and Ireland, the predisposing or exciting cause of their insanity being venereal disease.

It is impossible to supply accurate statistics relating to venereal diseases in the United Kingdom, as there is an immense organized hypocrisy and a well-understood conspiracy of silence regarding the subject. If the committees of our voluntary hospitals ceased misleading the public, and would publish the actual causes of the diseases which the patients suffer from, full particulars could be obtained; but it is stated that if they did so, the public would withdraw their subscriptions. It is unfortunate that at present all medical statistics relating to deaths and diseases due to alcoholism and venereal diseases are a source of joke, and are absolutely unreliable and wilfully misleading. Fournier states that of all hospital patients in Paris 15 to 19 per cent. were of venereal origin. Morrow places the percentage at the New York hospitals at 10 per cent. of the total; Lane in London at 33 per cent. of the out-patients; while in continental hospitals the percentage of women suffering from gonorrhoea is from 20 to 25. Prostitution and venereal diseases are interchangeable terms, for there is always venereal disease where there is prostitution.

A reference to the annual reports of the surgeons-general of the British

²⁴ Dr. A. Blaschko, *Die Geschlechts-Krankheiten*, Berlin, 1907.

army and navy give us some idea of the terrible amount of venereal diseases there present. During the year 1901, of 100,811 troops (army) stationed in the United Kingdom, there were 1,936 admissions for primary syphilis; 988, for soft chancre; 1,907, for secondary syphilis; 5,794, for gonorrhoea. That is, 10,625 "admissions" in twelve months. Of the British army in India and of 60,838 troops, there were admitted to hospital 2,021 for primary syphilis; 3,921, for soft chancre; 3,544, for secondary syphilis; 7,303, for gonorrhoea. That is, 16,789 admissions in twelve months. Of European troops stationed in other parts of the Empire (fifteen stations) there were admitted to hospital 655 for primary syphilis; 1,488 for soft chancre; 842 for secondary syphilis; 3,258 for gonorrhoea. In the Royal Navy, with 98,410 afloat, there were 3,293 persons treated for primary syphilis; 2,110 for secondary syphilis, 5,790 for gonorrhoea. That is 11,193 persons.

It is calculated that the army lost 514,855 days' active duty owing to venereal diseases among the troops, the sick rate being about 112.2 per 1,000 men in one year.

Supposing these sailors and soldiers had been suffering from plague, cholera, or smallpox, the daily papers would have spread such facts broadcast, and questions would have been asked in Parliament. But such questions are not asked about venereal diseases, chiefly because we are cowards; we do not wish to save thousands of children from death and disease, and are afraid of Mrs. Grundy. We know that very few of these men are really cured, and that they come home; go ashore, and wander about spreading the disease broadcast, and, by giving it to nursemaids and others, are the means of carrying venereal disease to children in private families. The Registrar-General, in his *Sixty-sixth Annual Report*, states that in one year, in England and Wales, 986 males and 843 females died from syphilis, and 12 males and 13 females from gonorrhoea, a total of 2,755. These statistics are much below the mark. What of the 19,081 children who died because they were born before full time? These figures refer only to those who die; but what of the immense total who are alive but suffering from the effects of venereal disease? It is interesting to note the amount of venereal diseases which came to light, for the year 1902, in the French army. There were 485,207 officers, non-commissioned officers, and men in the home service, and 77,185 in the foreign. The following are the statistics: Home Service: syphilis, 3,024, or 6.2 per 1,000; soft chancre, 1,071, or 2.2 per 1,000; gonorrhoea, 8,722, or 17.9 per 1,000, a total of 26.3 per 1,000. Foreign Service: syphilis, 1,219, or 15.8 per 1,000; soft chancre, 1,209, or 15.7 per 1,000; gonorrhoea, 2,986, or 38.7 per 1,000, a total of 70.2 per 1,000.

If reference be made to the *Fifty-ninth Report of the Commissioners*

in Lunacy (1905), Table XXII shows the influence of venereal diseases in causing insanity. In the yearly average for five years the condition of unsound mind in 489 persons was due to venereal diseases. Again Table XIV refers to deaths of lunatics from general paralysis of the insane (G. P. I.), and points out that of a total of 9,288 deaths in asylums, no less than 1,665 deaths were due to general paralysis of the insane. It is now held that the chief cause of general paralysis of the insane is syphilis. Mott, I think, states that from 25 to 40 per cent. of insanity is due to syphilis.

As bearing upon the devastating action of venereal disease *upon children*, Fournier says: "Syphilis is the essential murderer of those young in years; it is the veritable tomb of infants; it is the cause of death before birth, at the moment of birth, after birth, within the first week of birth, or it may await the first year. Syphilis, alcoholism, and tuberculosis constitute the triad of contemporaries." He gives the following facts: Of 28 mothers who had syphilis 1 child survived and 27 died. LeFleur's statistics show that of 414 syphilitic wives—who were pregnant when suffering from syphilis—who had among them 260 children, no less than 141 of these died within one month after birth. Of the 414 pregnancies 295 infants died, or about three deaths in every four births. When both parents are infected with syphilis the infant mortality is 68 per cent. in hospital practice, and 60 per cent. in private practice. Fournier terms the first year of the infant's life "l'année terrible," when speaking of the devastating influences of syphilis.

This is a fearful death-rate, much higher than that following small-pox, scarlet fever, or typhoid, and shows that the human animal is somewhat of a glut in the market. If other diseases of infancy, and especially gonorrhoeal ophthalmia in infants—a disease which sends many to institutions for the blind, makes many more become a charge to the Poor Law, and prevents others from earning a livelihood—were considered faithfully, the widespreading results of venereal disease would be more carefully studied. In New York in one year, of 1,941 mothers with gonorrhoea, 265 of their babies suffered from gonorrhoeal ophthalmia. In Switserland one in every five cases of blindness is due to gonorrhoea. In New York of the 1,941 cases of maternal gonorrhoea, 218 female children suffered from vulvo-vaginitis.

In all the discussions bearing upon the falling birth-rate, I have seen no notice given to venereal diseases and operations upon the uterine organs as causes of this fall. I contend that they are very serious causes.

How can venereal disease be stamped out?—No practical person holds that the registration of prostitutes on the Continent, or in England when

the Contagious Diseases Acts were in force, has been, or can be, of any service.

I would, however, suggest that notification of venereal diseases to the health authority, or to some central body in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin, be adopted, and that hospitals, supported by the municipalities, be established at which all poor venereals can obtain free treatment.

Bearing upon the above suggestions, I would point out that we now have compulsory notification of infectious diseases. Why not have notification of contagious diseases—especially as contagious diseases cause more widespread evils?²⁸

Dr. Fournier, one of the highest French authorities says:

Syphilis causes certain forms of insanity. Of 4,700 patients, 2,009, or 42.7 per cent. had nervous disorders. All the body is affected; general paralysis, locomotor ataxia, cancer of the tongue.

Collective damage: (1) Wives are infected. Twenty per cent. of women who have syphilis take it from their husbands; (2) Venereal diseases given by husbands drive women to divorce; the family is ruined; a great source of neglected and delinquent children, so costly and dangerous to the state.

Heredity: Syphilis slays infants by hecatombs; 60 per cent. in the city at large, 84.86 per cent. in hospitals, of infants of syphilitic mothers die. Idiocy, insanity, abortion, still-births result.²⁹

If it is said that the foregoing statistics apply only to European countries, and that in the United States the situation is not so alarming, we must reply by adducing the results of investigations by American physicians. In a communication from Dr. Prince A. Morrow the economic consequences of venereal diseases are discussed:

While the enormous prevalence of venereal infection is undeniable, and its dangers, both individual and social, are scientifically demonstrated, yet any estimate of the money loss to the community or nation must be purely conjectural and lacking in scientific accuracy. Such an estimate must include as items: (1) invalidism, often permanent; (2) loss of wage-earning capacity; (3) the cost of treatment, incalculable but enormous; (4) the cost of educating and caring for blind children, the idiots, deaf

²⁸ Robert R. Rentoul, *Race Culture*, chap. xvii.

²⁹ M. F. Hennéquin, *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*. Melun, 1908; 2 vols.

muties, the insane, and other defectives; (5) the loss of citizens to the state from the sterilizing influence of gonorrhea. . . . In the report of the surgeon-general of the U. S. army for 1904, it is stated that of every 1,000 soldiers stationed in the United States, 167 were admitted to the hospital for gonorrhea or syphilis. This was more than double the morbidity of tonsillitis, the next most common of the diseases to which the troop men were subject. . . . In the troops stationed in the Philippines, the venereal morbidity was 297 per 1,000, largely exceeding the morbidity from malarial fevers and diarrhea; 22 out of every 1,000 soldiers were constantly ineffective from venereal diseases—four times as many as from any other disease. . . .

The statistics of the Navy Department show during the same year that venereal disease was chargeable with a percentage of 25.2 per cent. of the total number of sick days in the hospital from all causes combined. In four years 949 men were discharged from the navy for disability from venereal diseases.

The most extended investigation ever made in this country was that of the "Committee of Seven on the Prophylaxis of Venereal Disease in New York City" in 1901. The committee was composed of medical men of recognized standing. A circular letter of questions was sent to 4,750 physicians resident in Greater New York, of whom 886 replied, but only 678 furnished statistics. These reported 23,196 cases (15,969 gonorrhea and 7,200 syphilis). From this the committee estimated that about 162,372 cases were treated in that year in the city. To these must be added the large number treated by druggists and quacks. The records of hospitals and dispensaries furnished further cases in great number. In public and private practice they thought 225,000 cases were treated. If we compare the morbidity of venereal diseases with that of other infectious diseases we find a startling contrast; for in 1900 the records showed that of measles there were only 12,530 cases; diphtheria, 11,001 cases; scarlet fever, 7,387 cases; chicken-pox, 1,251 cases; smallpox, 99 cases; tuberculosis, 8,877 cases. Tuberculosis is not adequately reported; the others are approximately correct; and against these we have a venereal morbidity of 225,000 cases. Yet, officially, venereal diseases do not exist in New York City, says the report. There is a conspiracy of hypocrisy to conceal the presence of these plagues and pretend that they do not exist.

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On further analysis of those statistics it was found that 1,328 cases of gonorrhoea occurred in men, 542 cases in women, and 114 cases in children. Of the infections in women 202 were particularly noted as marital infections. The proportion of women and children to men in the statistics regarding syphilis is remarkably high. In men 489 cases occurred, 303 in women, and 103 in children. Of the cases occurring in children 93 were classified as hereditary infections. Notes as to the source of the infection were, public prostitutes 678, clandestine prostitutes 625, extra-genital infection 184, and "source unknown" 376.

In examining the dispensary and hospital records, the Committee recorded only those cases where a definite diagnosis of gonorrhoea or syphilis was made. In some of the hospitals and dispensaries it was impossible to obtain any reliable statistics owing to the insufficiencies in the histories. In many of the cases no diagnosis was put down, and in some dispensaries no available histories were to be had. In one prominent dispensary, for example, 7,593 patients were listed for the year 1906, but the histories were so incomplete that it was impossible to obtain any reliable information from them. Only 17 of the 41 hospitals in Baltimore afforded any opportunities for statistical research, so the figures which follow represent only the cases treated in those 17 institutions during the year 1906. The total number of cases recorded was 6,360. Of these 4,553 were diagnosed as gonorrhoea and 1,807 as syphilis. Owing to the lack of available information in over one-half of our hospitals and dispensaries these figures represent most inadequately the number of venereal patients actually treated in our public institutions in the year 1906. Despite the fact, however, the extent of venereal morbidity embodied in this report far exceeds the morbidity resulting from the other contagious diseases in the year 1906, as officially recorded by the Board of Health.

In the year 1906, 575 cases of measles were reported; 1,172 cases of diphtheria; 577 cases of scarlet fever; 175 cases of chicken-pox; 58 cases of smallpox; 1,215 cases of typhoid fever; 465 cases of whooping cough; 57 cases of mumps, and 733 cases of tuberculosis, making a grand total of 5,047. The number of cases of tuberculosis reported is of course absurdly small, but since the tuberculosis campaign began the number of notifications has been considerably increased. This illustrates again the signal advantage of educating the general public in any effort to make preventive medicine efficacious.

Taking now the number of cases of contagious disease reported at the

Another valuable investigation was made by the "Committee on Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis" in Baltimore:

A circular letter was drafted, asking for detailed reports of venereal cases, and a copy was sent to each of the 1,200 physicians resident in Baltimore. Permission to inspect their records was also asked from the superintendents of the various dispensaries and public institutions in Baltimore, in which this class of cases is received. To the circular letters sent to the members of the medical profession relating to the statistics of private practice, 224 replies were received, about 18 per cent.

The statistics obtained from physicians in private practice consist entirely of the reports handed in by the 151 physicians whose returns were apparently careful and accurate. The total number of cases reported by them for the year 1906 is 3,090—2,195 cases of gonorrhoea and 895 cases of syphilis. These reports have been tabulated and preserved in a permanent form for reference. It is to be understood that no cases of chancroid are included in these figures. While the frequency of chancroid is variable, being less in private than in public practice, the statistics of all authors in all countries estimate it at from 9 to 35 per cent. of the total venereal morbidity.

Taking this aggregate of 3,090 cases and knowing that the 151 physicians who reported them represent only one-eighth of the total number of practicing physicians in Baltimore, it becomes evident that the number of cases here reported represents only a small fraction of the total number of cases actually treated in private practice during the year of 1906. Moreover, when account is taken of the quack doctors and advertising "specialists" who treat venereal patients it is obvious that the number of venereal cases here recorded must fall far short of the actual number of cases treated. It is only necessary to glance at the advertisements in the daily papers or to visit the expensive offices of the advertising quacks to reap assurance of the fact that venereal patients bring in large returns to the irregular practitioner. The amount of literature which the charlatans circulate is itself conclusive evidence of the thriving practice that they drive. On account of the shame and secrecy associated with the social diseases, the venereal patient is particularly prone to be duped by the fakir.

It is well known that many drug stores in this city owe a large part of their revenue to this class of practice and the many "sure cures" and blood purifiers which may be found upon their shelves bear witness to this fact. In addition to the patients who are treated by the irregular practitioner, are those who remain untreated or who use prescriptions given them by friends, and although it is impossible to estimate the number of

these cases any fairminded physician must admit that the number is large. The testimony of European physicians is that from 25 to 50 per cent. of all venereals are treated by charlatans.

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Taking now the number of cases of contagious disease reported at the

Health Bureau, let us compare with it the number of cases of venereal disease reported by the committee. There were reported 3,090 cases in private practice and 6,360 cases were recorded in the hospitals and dispensaries investigated, making a grand total of 9,450 cases of venereal disease. Opposed to this morbidity we have the sum total of 5,047 cases representing the collective morbidity resulting from the other contagious diseases in the year 1906.

When we notice that only 58 cases of smallpox were reported in 1906 and then realize that even the wholly inadequate figures of the committee show 2,706 cases of great pox in the same year, the thought must occur to us that the medical profession might for a time at least advantageously turn its attention to the greater evil.²⁷

No doubt similar results would be found in other cities. We may add fragmentary illustrations which indicate that New York and Baltimore are by no means exceptional.

So prevalent are these [venereal diseases] in our large cities that at least half the adult male population of all social grades, according to conservative estimates, contract one or both of them.²⁸

It is well known that insanity is one of the heaviest burdens on the financial resources of our states. The cause of insanity, even when known to be venereal disease, is often covered up under some other name. Yet we discover some facts in reports of asylums.

In the *Ninth Annual Report of the State Board of Insanity of Massachusetts* for the year ending November 30, 1907, p. 15, we find the following:

First cases received 2,414. One insane person came under care for the first time from every 1,291 of the estimated population of the state. No causes of insanity were assigned by the physicians of the hospital. . . . Congenital causes were assigned in 5.47 per cent.; heredity alone in 5.26 per cent., with other causes 14.13 per cent. . . . Alcoholic intemperance alone in 16.65 per cent., with other causes 5.35 per cent., making alcohol a causative factor in 22 per cent., senility in 13.79 per cent.; coarse brain lesions in 5.30 per cent.; syphilis in 3.19 per cent. In the insane ward of the State Hospital the average rate for three years (1905-7) was 5.93 per cent.; in Worcester Hospital the highest, 6.13 per cent.

²⁷ Reported by D. R. Hooker, M.D., *Maryland Medical Journal*, February, 1908.

²⁸ W. T. Belfield, *Man and Woman*, p. 86.

The economic loss due to venereal diseases is indicated in this citation from a circular of the Chicago Society of Social Hygiene:

Gonorrhoea, while usually cured without apparent loss of health, has always serious possibilities: it kills about one in two hundred; it permanently maims one in a hundred; it impairs the sexual power and fertility of a much larger number; it often produces urethral stricture, which later may cause loss of health and even of life; and in many cases it causes chronic pain and distress in the sexual organs with severe mental depression. The loss of health, time, and money entailed by these sequels and their treatment may far exceed that occasioned by the original disease.

The disaster to the individual wrought by syphilis is shown in the attitude of the leading insurance companies toward those so infected—a purely business proposition devoid of all sentimental considerations. They refuse to insure the life of a syphilitic person for four or five years after the disease was contracted, and then only upon special terms. For their records prove that syphilis shortens life.²⁹

One of the highest authorities on pauperism, Amos G. Warner (*American Charities*, pp. 66-71, ed. of 1894), has given us the result of a prolonged expert study of degenerate persons in American cities:

Careful observers believe it [licentiousness] to be a more constant and fundamental cause of degeneration than intemperance. . . . No boy among boys, or man among men, can have failed to have evidence thrust upon him showing that a very great amount of vitality is burnt out by the fires of lust. . . . Personal acquaintance with railroad day laborers, and others of a similar class, convinces the writer that they are commonly kept from rising in the industrial scale by their sensuality, and that it is this and the resulting degeneration that finally converts them into lazy vagabonds. The inherent uncleanness of their minds prevents them from rising above the rank of day laborers, and finally incapacitates them even for that position. It may also be suggested that the modern man has a stronger imagination than the man of a few hundred years ago, and that sensuality destroys him the more rapidly.

To this testimony might be added that of Dugdale in his remarkable story of the Jukes, and McCulloch's story of the Ishmaels. Venereal diseases are spread even to innocent persons by the floating class of irresponsible vagrants.³⁰

²⁹ Cf. W. T. Belfield, *Man and Woman*, p. 90.

³⁰ See *Report of the Departmental Committee on Vagrancy* (British), Vol. II, pp. 105, 203.

III. MORAL LOSS CAUSED BY THE SOCIAL EVIL AND SEXUAL VICES

This subject does not lend itself to precise statistical treatment, yet the argument does not lack cogency. In the extreme form we discern the spiritual ruin wrought by wicked indulgence, in the wrecks of humanity inclosed in prisons and cared for in asylums and hospitals.

A curious and somber aspect of this matter is that men who indulge in base vice lose the fine quality of conscience without knowing it. First goes the power to blush; then comes the levity, the coarseness, the positive delight in obscenity which shocks the right minded. The roué loses faith in the purity of women and of men, and judges the world by himself. It is simply inconceivable to him that anyone can be other than the debased and polluted creature which he has voluntarily made himself.²¹

²¹ A. Marro, *La puberté*, pp. 517 ff.; G. F. Lydston, *The Diseases of Society*.

CHAPTER II

METHODS OF SOCIAL CONTROL AND MOVEMENTS FOR AMELIORATION

It is true that this Handbook is primarily for teachers and that its chief object is to discuss the best educational methods of dealing with the problems connected with the sexual life. But a consideration of various policies of regulation and control is necessary at this point for at least three good reasons; first, because many teachers are among the leaders of thought in their communities, and their attitude is a large factor in shaping a sound public opinion; second, because a critical examination of all proposed methods of police regulation must reveal their partial failure and show the necessity for an educational campaign; third, because many of the arguments used for certain methods of regulation tend to poison the moral nature and undo the work of faithful teachers.

No scheme of external police regulation can ever take the place of a sound moral training and that rational self-control which is the only ultimate guaranty of good citizenship. Yet police and sanitary control of some kind is necessary. While vice and crime exist, and until education in morality and religion has done its perfect work, society must employ its police powers as far as these are available to diminish disease, protect the innocent, and guard the ignorant against temptation. Teachers, like all other thoughtful and responsible formers of opinion and character, should be acquainted with the actual and proposed measures of governments.

I. THE SANITARY POINT OF VIEW, AND "RÉGLEMENTATION"

Physicians very properly regard it as their social duty to guard in all possible ways against the communication of infectious diseases of all kinds. They lead the civilized world in advocating and organizing measures for diminishing typhoid fever, tuberculosis, scarlet fever, and other communicable maladies; and for this they deserve our praise and our support. Now, medical practitioners are compelled in their daily rounds of duty to come into contact with the loathsome and dangerous diseases already discussed. Naturally

they inquire what society can do to diminish the spread of these infectious diseases which, for the most part, originate with prostitutes and their male clients.

Policy of state (or municipal) license or toleration, on the basis of inspection, control, and certificates of physicians.—This policy has many advocates, and it is followed in France, Germany and other nations. It is claimed that it is the duty of the state to prevent or at least to diminish all diseases, no matter what their nature, and so protect the public. To carry out a system of effective regulation it would be necessary (1) to distinguish and separate the diseased from the healthy prostitutes; (2) to bring all harlots into special quarters and houses where they can be supervised; (3) to discover and send to hospitals every harlot as soon as she is diseased and so capable of infecting men; (4) also to examine every man who enters a house of ill fame to be sure that he is not diseased.

Is such a policy capable of being carried out? An examination of the facts shows what might be expected, that not one part of this scheme can be carried out thoroughly. Of course infection may be prevented in a certain number of cases; the liability to infect may be reduced in particular instances; and it would be dishonest to deny that something has been achieved by systems of regulation and toleration.

We cite the argument of Professor Fournier in favor of the system of *réglementation*.¹ Dr. Fournier first gives evidence in support of the assertion that syphilis and gonorrhea are social plagues, ranking along with alcoholism and tuberculosis as agents of destruction. The evil is fourfold: these diseases inflict injuries on the diseased person; they are a source of misery to the wife and children; both occasion grave hereditary harm; and thus through injury to persons and families the nation suffers. The illustrations of this argument we have given elsewhere in this discussion.

Next Dr. Fournier takes up the objections to medical supervision of prostitution, which is the source of these venereal diseases: that such medical supervision is injurious, inadequate, and useless. He examines the assertion of the "abolitionists" that it is injurious

¹ M. F. Hennéquin, *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*, 1908.

to public health on account of the false security which it promises and by the terror which it inspires in prostitutes. In reply he says:

The state has never corrupted anyone, nor advised anyone to resort by preference to the women registered for medical control; and the guarantees offered by sanitary control are not very attractive, as is shown by the fact that the public houses, which are most secure, have long declined in numbers, notably at Paris, where, in a period of sixty years their number has fallen from 235 to 48 in 1901.

To the objection that *réglementation* inspires the women with fear and keeps them from registration and control, he says:

The objection is valid, so far as Paris is concerned, since the women dread Saint-Lazare because it is rather a prison than a hospital. Apathy, indolence, carelessness, vague fear of remedies and physicians, and often the prohibition of their employers who do not permit them to interrupt their occupation act as a deterrent to registration.

Another objection is that *réglementation* is inadequate. Dr. Fournier says:

The complaint is just, but *réglementation* has of necessity a limited field, and reaches only the lower levels. But even if it restricts disease a little it should be used. Private charity is good, although it leaves many poor without relief; and the police force is useful though it does not detect all criminals.

It is claimed by "abolitionists" that *réglementation* is useless. Dr. Fournier here enters upon an examination of the results of the Contagious Diseases Acts in England and similar legislation in Italy. This dispute is too complicated to repeat here and leads to no conclusive result for either side.

Dr. Fournier then states the programme which he claims commands the support of the majority of medical men. The object of this programme of action is to reduce the physical evils of prostitution (*l'assainement de la prostitution*). It demands all that is advantageous to public health and takes no thought of anything further. It demands a medical inspection of prostitutes at fixed intervals, and, when they are found to be diseased, their incarceration in a special asylum. The programme is summed up in these words: medical supervision of prostitution, a supervision which shall be legal, humane, and reformatory. By *legal supervision*, he means the substitution, in place of the arbitrary, omnipotent, and

capricious power of the police, of a system in which the law provides, defines, and limits all the measures which are to be used for the defense of public morals and health, such as the arrest of women for public solicitation, or their sequestration when they have contagious diseases. This supervision must be humane; that is, must be free from the persecutions of an intolerant discipline, and from all punishment; in a word, from all requirements which simply exasperate women and compel them to shake off an odious yoke, to the great detriment of the public health. The women under restraint by reason of contagious disease should be treated as sick and not as criminal persons, with all the kindness which is due any sick person. They should not be kept in a prison but in a special asylum, until a certificate of health is given. Moral influences should be used during the stay in the asylum; a trade should be taught by which the woman can earn an honest living, and she should then be encouraged and helped to lead a better life. Perhaps a more authoritative and competent representation of the system of *réglementation* could not be furnished. In another plea for public regulation according to the French method, Dr. Fournier says:

Do not accuse us hygienists and physicians of not having done our best to safeguard the public health, for we have struggled a long time to realize a better condition, but our counsel and our adjurations have simply been heard in high places. Still public opinion is energetically urged to abolish all medical supervision of prostitution by a powerful society called the Federation for Abolition. We count on the good sense of the French people to resist such doctrines, the result of which would be to multiply the venereal peril tenfold.¹

This passage is cited simply to show the point of view of some French physicians and some in America also.

On the other hand, the arguments of the abolitionists in France are presented by Dr. Angagneur who, in his reply to Dr. Fournier, reached the following conclusions:

1. Venereal diseases have not the serious importance ascribed to them by the public and above all by specialists. Syphilis, the most important of all, has little influence on general morality and on the increase of population.

¹ Dr. Alfred Fournier, *Pour nos fils*, p. 46.

2. The variations in the rate of venereal morbidity are about the same throughout Europe. Venereal disease is decreasing in all the armies of Europe. The presence or absence of a system of *réglementation* has no appreciable influence on the amount of such disease.

3. The introduction of *réglementation* in a community which has not had such a system does not affect the rate of morbidity; if any effect is produced the rate increases.

4. The suppression of *réglementation* in any community does not affect the rate of venereal morbidity, but this rate often diminishes after the suspension of *réglementation*.

5. Prostitution necessarily brings the prostitutes to syphilis. *Réglementation* has no power to prevent this contamination.

6. It cannot be proved that the women subjected to inspection are more free from infection than those not under supervision. Older prostitutes in any case are more immune than the younger.

7. *Réglementation* does not tend to free prostitution from disease; it renders it more dangerous by keeping women from seeking treatment.

8. Those infected with venereal diseases are the more inclined to seek treatment the less vigorous is the supervision, and the more humane and accessible are the hospitals.

9. *Réglementation* has not had a favorable influence on venereal morbidity; on the contrary it aggravates it.

Some of these positions were sharply contested by medical men, especially the attempt to minimize the disastrous results of venereal diseases.³ Attempts at control are made by France, Belgium, Germany, Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Austria, Hungary, Roumania, Spain, and Portugal. In the United States, England, Norway, Holland (except Rotterdam), Switzerland (except Geneva), this policy is not pursued.⁴

Can prostitutes be brought under control?

In all places and especially in the great cities attempts to suppress secret prostitution have come to a miserable fiasco. Thus in Paris with its approximately 4,000 registered prostitutes, estimates of secret prostitutes run from 10,000 to 120,000. In Berlin there are only 3,500 public and 10,000 to 50,000 secret harlots. In Vienna there are 1,700 to 2,000 registered and from 20,000 to 60,000 secret harlots.⁵

³M. F. Hennéquin, *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*, 1908.

⁴Gruber, *op. cit.*

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 16.

What is really promised by the advocates of the German license system? Not much. S. Bettman, an advocate of this system, will say no more than this: "Surely no greater security should be promised than control can afford." * He follows Jadassohn in advising this information for male "clients" of the inspected harlots, in places where the tolerance and inspection system obtains:

1. Every prostitute, i. e., every woman who engages in sexual intercourse for pay, is under obligation to submit herself regularly to police investigation, in order to determine, as well as possible, whether she is suffering from a contagious disease.
2. Every prostitute is under obligation always to have and to show on request a card with her photograph similar to the one in the control book.
3. Every prostitute who has not this evidence is in the highest degree suspicious, and intercourse with her is particularly dangerous.
4. The card contains the certificate of the last police examination; and may not be more than four days old.
5. But even prostitutes who are regularly examined by the police physicians *may* be sick, since there are contagious maladies which the examinations cannot disclose.
6. The examination gives no security against infection with venereal diseases, but can merely diminish the danger of infection by exclusion of those who are affected certainly and in a high degree.

Regulations of this character are not an invitation to men to engage in immorality; they operate rather as a deterrent, and also indicate satisfactorily the still greater risk to health of intercourse with prostitutes who are not examined by police physicians.

To one who is really sane and knows all the facts this information would exclude all but men *sex mad*, insane from lust and drink. But fools will heed nothing. The most that Bettman claims is a *reduction* of the *probability* of infection for a certain case; he knows well that any man who persists will be infected some time. The question is whether this is worth what it costs; whether there are disadvantages over against advantages; and whether the same results cannot be obtained without a semblance of license by some better method? The effort to make the control, examination, and treatment thorough drives many of the wretched women to avoid the registration and conceal their condition. Men are tempted all the more to vicious and dangerous indulgence when

* *Die aerztliche Ueberwachung der Prostitution*, S. Bettman, p. 162. 163.

the official certificate of health is exhibited by the temptress. Fear is allayed, but danger is by no means removed. *There is no safe way to sin.* Dr. Gruber declares:

The one who is prostituted or who has intercourse with prostitutes must be informed that he will soon or late become infected with venereal disease, even with the dangerous diseases of gonorrhea and syphilis."¹

On the basis of a local investigation in the city of Mannheim, Germany, where the policy of inspection prevails, it has been affirmed that the number of the infected is still so great that the best possible control offers no secure protection against infection.⁶

As for myself, and I trust I speak for all in this professedly Christian land, I would declare: "We cannot consent to sanction of evil that good may come from it." . . . We will fight evil wherever we see it, and under all circumstances we will oppose the debasement of the public standards of right and morality. This we will do in entire confidence that in spite of all appearance the right so upheld will in the end prove victorious."⁷

The venereal diseases belong to the worst accompaniments of the sexual impulse. . . . Medicine, in connection with men's eagerness for pleasure, has hit upon the most absurd and debasing arrangements that one can imagine, i.e., state toleration, organization, and attempted cleansing of prostitution. Under the pretext of a sanitary regulation, they compel prostitutes to enrol themselves in houses of ill-fame and subject them there to regular medical inspections which are designed to remove the infected from circulation and require them to submit to treatment in the hospital. It is evident that the more or less unsavory service of a prostitute's physician on the whole (there are exceptions) is likely to be followed by physicians of inferior grade. We shall see later that the whole system fails of its purpose. The value of treatment of venereal diseases has been greatly overestimated. . . . The only adequate treatment of venereal infec-

¹ Gruber: *op. cit.*, p. 30. Proof of the inefficiency and failure of all methods of government regulation are given by Dr. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution vom Standpunkte der Sozialhygiene aus betrachtet*, Vienna, 1905; Dr. Howard A. Kelly, "What Is the Right Attitude of the Medical Profession Toward the Social Evil?" paper read before the American Medical Association, 1904, and reprinted from the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 4, 1905, citing an article by Frederick Griffith, in the *New York Medical Record*, April 23, 1904, on the status in Paris; James Foster Scott, *The Sexual Instinct*, 1908 (2d ed.); G. F. Lydston, *Diseases of Society*.

⁶ Drs. Lion and Loeb, in *Sexualpädagogik*, D. G. B. G., p. 296.

⁷ Dr. Howard A. Kelly, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

tion is to *avoid* it. It is beyond belief that honorable women, with the idea of protecting their daughters from the lust of men, will continue to defend such barbaric institutions as licensed prostitution and regulation. Nothing but suggestion of men, to which women are often exposed, can make this comprehensible. That many men and physicians defend this system arises from a mixture of blind conservatism, faith in authority, and incapacity for forming a judgment, together with a concealed, often unconscious eroticism.¹⁰

What must be the influence of the system of inspection and control on members of the medical profession? It would not be true to assert of all the physicians who administer this system in Europe that they are unworthy of their high profession. If the system on the whole were the best for society men of character would be found to carry it out, repulsive as it might be in certain aspects. The treatment of disease cannot fairly be judged by aesthetic standards. From the outside we can sympathize with the expression of disgust with which even physicians repel the proposition to introduce Parisian methods in American cities. Thus a high-minded medical man says:

The necessity for examining women licensed to carry on their business will create in our midst a vile and odious specialty, akin and closely allied to the professional abortionist, degrading to our profession and partly bringing it into contempt by making it thus pander to vice. . . . Read Griffith's article, and see how many of the Paris medical men are employed with two tables examining prostitutes at the rate of about 450 an hour! What a lowering of our standards when we come to that!!¹¹

But this praiseworthy repugnance to a vile task does not meet all the difficulties. Can the medical profession and the public authorities leave the whole matter alone and do nothing to cure and mitigate the ravages of the diseases in question?

This society has been criticized by some physicians for the adoption of a policy which excludes *réglementation* from its scheme of work. The failure of this system abroad in materially decreasing the spread of disease, apart from objections on moral grounds, and the hostility of public sentiment in this country, led to its rejection. It would seem a gross inconsistency for a society which holds that monogamy is the only sure basis of

¹⁰ Dr Forel, *Die sexuelle Frage*, pp. 230, 231.

¹¹ Dr. Howard A. Kelly.

the social order, the normal productivity and progress of the race, to sanction the legal recognition of a class of women set apart for polygamous practices. A society that recommends continence as the surest preventive of venereal infection cannot consistently favor a legalized provision for incontinence. We cannot afford to lower the standard of morality. The supremacy of morals in private or public life can never be established unless we hold fast to those immutable principles of right based upon the "moral code," which is diametrically opposed to the "conventional code of morals."

"Physicians," declares Dr. Osler, "should be the apostles of continence." Whether or not the individual lives of its members conform to this standard, the medical profession in its corporate capacity, in societies and associations, should proclaim the doctrine, based upon sound physiology and experience, that continence is not prejudicial to health. The almost universal infection of the minds of young men with the converse of this doctrine—the so-called "sexual necessity"—is in my opinion, the most powerful determining cause of masculine immorality.¹³

II. THE POLICY OF REPRESSION: THE "ABOLITIONISTS"

This policy aims at the absolute suppression of all illicit sexual intercourse. It requires, in order to be effective, that every harlot and every male frequenter of rooms or houses of ill fame be arrested and severely punished by fine and prolonged imprisonment. It is true that professional prostitutes can be driven out of rural districts and villages where there is an overwhelming public opinion in favor of this policy. But when the attempt is made in cities the evil is scattered but not exterminated. Policemen frequently accept bribes from the houses of ill fame as "hush money," and in return protect the outcasts from interruption. It is practically impossible to secure witnesses for prosecution. What man will testify, since his testimony incriminates himself? What woman of ill repute can be brought to testify?

It is very easy to declaim against sexual vice and demand that the authorities exterminate it root and branch; but such declamation seldom takes account of all the facts. Does any person who is acquainted with our great cities really mean to propose to imprison as criminals the unknown thousands of miserable women who sell body and soul for a living? Have such zealous and worthy orators

¹³ Dr. Prince A. Morrow, *Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*.

even figured out how many prisons would have to be built and maintained to carry out their policy? Have they taken pains to learn, as they should before speaking, how impossible it would be to ferret out the secret prostitutes which the most vigilant detectives in European cities are unable to discover? Have they carefully studied the effects of attempts to treat prostitutes as criminals already made in obedience to occasional moral spasms of public interest in American cities? Have they ever duly thought out the demoralizing tendency on courts and police? Do they not know what a deeply rooted vice will do to pay hush money to those who are given power to imprison the offenders? Have they duly considered the revolting injustice of a policy of imprisoning women for an offense and permitting men, their accomplices and tempters, to go free or to escape with a fine?

Frankly we must give up the policy of repression, for it can be nothing more than a sham policy, full of hypocrisy and corruption, not at all effective for its purpose. A slower but more fundamental policy must be found; a policy which will not recognize the profession of the prostitute as legal or pretend to guarantee the lustful against disease, and yet will work steadily toward the cure and prevention of disease, and the removal of the causes.

III. THE POLICY OF MORAL REGULATION OF VICE

The essential features of this policy are:

1. *Repressive features.*—It is possible for the police force of government supported by wise laws and enlightened public opinion, in a reasonable degree, to *prevent the open and public solicitation of the temptress*. The street walker can be arrested; those who sit at open windows may be required to hide; red lights and other advertising methods may be suppressed; saloons, dancing-halls, and places of amusement can be cleared of vicious persons.

2. *Preventive features.*—Children must be rescued from the control and influence of vicious parents or guardians. The respectable tenants of tenement houses may be protected against the invasion of women of depraved habits. The crowding of living and sleeping-rooms, promiscuous and intimate association of persons of both sexes, especially of boarders, must be brought under municipal control. Still wider measures are the industrial education of

girls, vigorous action of juvenile courts to prevent the prostitution of girls, raising of wages of girls to a decent standard, supervision of work places and mercantile establishments.

3. *A system of moral regulation* must recognize the demands of the medical profession, and include practical measures of dealing with infected persons. Physicians should be trained for this task. Quacks should be rooted out and newspapers punished for inserting their advertisements, if not by law at least by withdrawal of patronage of subscribers and advertisers. Dispensaries and hospitals should admit patients suffering from these maladies, and the cost of treatment should not be in the way of the admission of anyone. District nurses should be taught to discover and know how to advise the ignorant and poor. Physicians paid by the public should be ready to treat poor persons who come to them. The sacred and responsible relations of marriage should be guarded before the portal by a state law requiring a medical certificate of an official physician of freedom from communicable disease as a condition of receiving a license to marry.

These points are argued at length in the report of the Committee of Fifteen in the volume called *The Social Evil*.¹³ The writer of this Handbook looks upon this Report as the most sane, high-minded, and practical statement which has come to his notice.

It is customary to speak as though there were but three possible ways of dealing with prostitution, absolute *laissez-faire*, absolute prohibition of vice, and *réglementation*.

It is very cogently argued that *laissez-faire* is an inadmissible policy. Not only does venereal disease extend its ravages unchecked, but every sort of moral iniquity thrives wherever vice is a law unto itself. With equal cogency it is argued that no human legislator can make vicious men or women virtuous, or preserve so close a surveillance over them as to prevent the exercise of their evil propensities. Thus, by a process of exclusion, *réglementation* is arrived at as the only rational policy for government to pursue.

It is difficult to understand how such naïve reasoning can still be entertained by thinking men. Regulative and repressive systems differ in emphasis, rather than in essence. The first aim of the *réglementationist* is to check disease; he recognizes, however, the gravity of vice in itself, and

¹³ Committee of Fifteen, *The Social Evil*, chap. xi (1902).

admits that no measures that may limit its volume are to be disregarded. The opponent of *réglementation*, while believing that vice itself is an evil that completely overshadows any hygienic effects that result from it, will generally admit that all means for combating venereal disease should be adopted, provided that they are not directly antagonistic to moral ends. Accordingly, we find many elements, both moral and sanitary, upon which both parties agree. A system of control based upon such common elements and supplemented somewhat as common-sense suggests, would escape the serious charge, now brought against *réglementation*, of making itself auxiliary to prostitution, and would at the same time be free from the moral and hygienic futility of violent repression. Such a system would abandon the task of effecting the impossible, in either morals or hygiene, and would reserve the powers at its command for the bringing about of such ameliorations as experience and reason have shown to be possible. Such a system we may term the Moral Regulation of Vice, since it would never lose sight of the fact that moral considerations are of paramount importance.

Repressive features in moral control.—The first point upon which all are agreed is the necessity of suppressing, so far as possible, flagrant incitement to debauch. Solicitation upon the street and in public places should be restrained; haunts of vice should be compelled to assume the appearance of decency; in short, every method of conspicuous advertising of vice should be done away with. It is admitted that this can only approximately be accomplished. The prostitute will always continue to make her presence known. But much would be gained if vice could be made relatively inconspicuous except to its votaries. The constant presence of women known to be immoral serves to recruit each year the patronage of prostitution by inciting to vice many who would not of themselves have sought illicit pleasures. From this point of view, it is far better that prostitutes should be clandestine in fact as well as in name than that they should appear in their true colors. A system which places moral ends before sanitary would be just as capable of dealing with this part of the problem as one which regards sanitary ends as paramount. As a practical fact, the former system would encounter less difficulty than the latter, since the exigencies of sanitary control require that a certain latitude of flagrancy should be given to the licensed prostitute. Reuss, p. 87, is cited: "From the moment that by inscription a semi-official seal is placed upon prostitution, one is morally bound to grant the women upon whom obligations are imposed the right to exercise their trade. For the great majority of public women, solicitation upon the street is the only kind that can be employed. The street where they elbow the passers-by, furnishes them the means of their existence; forbid it them, and they die of hunger."

The pernicious effect of a league between vice and legitimate pleasures has been mentioned above. Especially dangerous is vice in public drinking-places. Women are engaged to persuade men to drink alcoholic liquors to excess; the effects of alcohol, in turn, lend service to vice. . . . It will doubtless be impossible to keep the saloon absolutely free from the presence of prostitution, and to prohibit absolutely the sale of intoxicants in brothels. But a policy which should revoke the license of a saloonkeeper who permits unattended women to frequent his premises in the evening and night would assist in driving vice from the saloonkeeper. A supplemental policy of discouraging the sale of liquors in so-called hotels would be needed to make the plan effective.

In like manner, the dancing-hall or music-hall which lends itself to the purposes of vice is a public nuisance and could be reached by the police whenever immorality becomes flagrantly conspicuous.

Vice will naturally take refuge in private houses if denied the use of public places. It would still require regulation to keep it within the bounds of decency. It is in vain that it is driven into privacy if by conspicuous lights or signs or by noisy music it is permitted to make its presence notorious. An English law of the present day makes it possible to close a house if it is shown by the testimony of two responsible citizens to be used for immoral purposes. While it is doubtful whether such a law would have any other effect than that of breaking up the house of ill fame and compelling prostitutes to resort to solicitation upon the street, an analogous measure which should permit aggrieved neighbors to close a house which is obtrusively devoted to immorality would be a most efficient form in compelling such establishments to conceal their true character.

We may here consider whether moral ends are best subserved by relegating vice to a single quarter of the city. It is a serious question whether the house of ill fame, situated in a respectable locality and compelled to preserve an outward air of decency, is as dangerous to the community at large as a similar establishment surrounded by others of a like character and hence not under compulsion to refrain from flagrant devices for increasing its patronage.

Preventive features.—A second point upon which all parties will agree, is the desirability of keeping growing children free from contact with professional vice. The child who knows all evil is almost destined to share in it. No child over three years of age should be permitted in a house where prostitution is carried on. In tenements and flat-houses parents of children should be able to bring complaint against tenants of tenements or flats in the same building when suspicion is created that prostitution is carried on in such tenements and if the suspicion is found to be based

upon reasonable grounds, the courts should require the landlord to evict the suspected parties. The evil is one of such gravity that it would seem to justify a measure which interfered, to a certain extent, with the principle of inviolability of domicile.

Even where the children of the poor are not in immediate contact with professional vice, their surroundings are frequently highly inimical to virtue. When a whole family, adults and children of both sexes, is crowded together in a single room, moral degradation is almost inevitable. . . . The problem is one of the most intricate with which society has to deal, since the incomes of the poor and the rents which they have to pay are almost entirely fixed by laws over which government has little control. Nevertheless, the question may be raised whether it is not possible by means of restrictions upon the building and letting of houses, to discourage the formation of quarters that inevitably entail upon the community a most serious burden of vice and disease. . . .¹⁴

The report further suggests: industrial education of girls, to help them to be self-supporting by honest industry; the prevention of the prostitution of minors by the care of neglected children, and, we may add, juvenile courts.

General practitioners should be required to possess a high degree of knowledge in the treatment of venereal maladies. . . . The quack physician who practically fosters disease for his own ends should be eliminated. Treatment for venereal disease should be within the reach of all. The cost of adequate treatment for the more serious forms of venereal maladies is so great that the vast majority of patients cannot be treated at all except at public hospitals and dispensaries. These should, accordingly, be numerous enough to furnish gratuitous treatment to all who desire it. Patients should be encouraged to appear for treatment; every care should be taken to insure them against exposure, since many would rather endure their maladies in secret than permit it to be known that they suffer from a shameful disease." If publicity cannot be avoided at public dispensaries, it would be for the general welfare to designate officially private physicians in each quarter of the city, who should treat such patients free of charge, receiving their compensation from the public treasury.

Dr. Morrow says that facilities for such treatment in New York City are inadequate; probably this is true in most if not all our cities.

Objection will doubtless be raised that such measures would minimize the deterrent effect that is exercised by venereal disease upon those

¹⁴ *The Social Evil*.

who wish to indulge in vice. It is a sufficient answer that the chronic results of disease are frequently even more disastrous to innocent parties than to the sufferer himself. Moreover, the immediate consequences of disease are sufficiently grave to act as deterrent for those who can be deterred from vice by fear of disease. It is doubtful whether the distantly remote consequences are weighed at all.

Finally, a system of moral control cannot overlook the fact that venereal disease is frequently transmitted to innocent persons. It is difficult to see how this evil can be remedied except by the requirement, as a preliminary condition to the issuing of a marriage license, of a certificate from an official physician showing the present state of health of each of the contracting parties. Such a requirement would work no real hardship to anyone, since few persons who suspected the existence of a disease of this kind would apply for an official examination before health had been restored. It will be admitted that many difficulties would arise in the administration of such a law, and that it could only diminish somewhat the evil which it is designed to meet. The evil in question is, however, one of so revolting a nature that any amelioration would be worth a heavy cost.

The report urges the appointment of a special body of police agents for the administration of the system.

For the introduction of a system of control embodying the above features several state laws would be needed. But whereas *réglementation* would with difficulty find a place under the Constitution, a system of moral control would be open to no objections on the score of constitutional law. What is of greater importance, any good that might result from *réglementation* is fatally tainted with evil; whatever good might result from moral control is good unmixed. *Réglementation* would arouse the unpromising hostility of a great part of the community; intelligent moral control would meet with the approval of all, excepting of those who are not satisfied with a plan which would only gradually bring about moral and sanitary improvement, and who dream that there is some royal road to the instant abolition of either moral or sanitary evil.

The *Detroit method* may—with some misgivings—be mentioned under the plans for the mitigation of evils. Some think it only license under a new name. Dr. Guy L. Kiefer, health officer of Detroit, says:

The following method as practiced here has been in use about two months. . . . The keepers of all houses of prostitution known to the police have been notified that certificates of health will no longer be required nor accepted by the board of health. The board does not care about cer-

tificates, but does care about health. It is its duty to prevent, so far as possible, the spread of all contagious diseases, and venereal diseases are contagious."¹⁸

Therefore on and after January 1 the health officer, or some physician delegated by him, will visit these houses at unannounced and irregular intervals and examine the inmates. If any are found with a contagious disease (gonorrhea or syphilis) they will be *quarantined*. The placard used on these houses is a large yellow card with the one word "quarantined" printed on it in conspicuous, heavy, black letters. The keeper of the house then agrees to send the woman to a hospital for treatment at her own expense. "There, after a thorough examination, clinical and bacteriologic, by a physician of the board of health, when found recovered, she was allowed to go." The houses are not licensed, but these diseases are treated like other contagious diseases. An officer must be constantly at work. The plan is merely partial and palliative: many of the women will escape notice and go on infecting men; and in intervals of visits will infect many.

Educational methods of the state of Indiana.—In the year 1905 the legislature of Indiana passed a law, which was designed to prevent the issuance of licenses to marry in cases of unfit persons. The Board of Health of Indiana caused to be distributed a large number of cards on which were printed "facts about tuberculosis, gonorrhea, and syphilis."

New French Bill.—We here insert a summary of the chief points of a bill recommended to the French parliament as a result of an investigation covering the experience of more than a century and a discussion of some of the most competent men in France during a period of three years.¹⁹ This bill (*Projet de loi concernant la prostitution et la prophylaxie des maladies vénériennes*) aims to take from the police the power of arbitrary arrest on suspicion, the power to punish without trial and all forms of legal tolerance, enforced inscription and medical inspection, with certificates of health which were condemned by a majority of the commission, not without

¹⁸ *Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 21, 1908, p. 97.

¹⁹ *Rapport général sur les travaux de la Commission Extra-parlementaire du Régime des Mœurs*, présenté par M. F. Jeanéquin. Melun, 1908. 2 vols., pp. 285, 534.

protest from strong medical authorities. This bill aims positively to prevent public solicitation and temptation, the seduction and ruin of girls, and to provide all possible means of healing diseases and limiting the spread of venereal poisons.

1. Among the general provisions of the bill are (*Titre I*): Prostitutes shall not be deprived of liberty except by due process of law; they shall not be compelled to register on a list of prostitutes and be subject to enforced inspection.

2. Minors are protected from moral peril (*Titre II*): if under the age of eighteen, and habitually immoral, they may be brought before a civil court and placed under the care of an institution for reformatory education up to majority or marriage. A useful industry is taught and money for a start in life furnished out of the earnings upon discharge.

3. Public solicitation to sexual immorality is brought under the law (*Titre III*), and the penal code is modified to provide fine and imprisonment for the offense.

4. The attempt to incite to evil conduct, notorious cohabitation for debauch, and the renting of a dwelling knowingly to prostitutes are brought under the Penal Code (*Titre IV*). The police are forbidden to enter a domicile, however, except in case of tumult or where a person's safety is in danger.

5. Preventive measures (*Titre V*). Prostitutes arrested under the law and found to be infected may be required to take medical treatment, if they do not submit to it voluntarily. On complaint any man or woman guilty of communicating a contagious venereal disease may be punished. Quack advertisements are brought under control. Hospitals are required to accept venereal cases for treatment. Dispensaries and consultations by physicians are provided for and exposure is forbidden. In all medical schools the young physicians must have instruction in venereal diseases. Mutual benefit societies must not refuse aid to members requiring medical aid for those maladies.

Mention may be made here of the problem of isolating the houses of ill fame with a view to removing them as far as possible from contact with children and youth. This involves, on the part of the police, a certain kind of silent toleration and the suspension of laws making it criminal to rent houses to be used for immoral

purposes. On this knotty subject opinions of thoughtful people differ widely. In some degree this is the actual policy followed in American cities, with spasmodic arrests—sometimes more in the interest of fees and bribes to policemen than with any real good to the community. On segregation we have the views of Dr. E. Lesser (*Verhütung und Bekämpfung*, etc.):

On the restriction of prostitutes to certain houses.—I may say at the very beginning that from a hygienic standpoint I do not ascribe to this question a very great importance, although there can be no doubt that it would be very much easier to control the conditions of health with harlots in the houses and to bring medical treatment to those who are sick. Still on the other hand it is very certain that at present under no conditions is it possible to shut up all the prostitutes of a great city or even the greater part of them in such houses. The hygienic conditions of the prostitutes outside of the houses would naturally in no way be touched by this arrangement, and therefore we must, even along with the existence of tolerated houses with the greater number of prostitutes who live where they please, employ the means we have before described and some others in order to secure sanitary conditions.

But in an entirely different relation, by partial restriction to certain places, that is by a partial compulsion to live in certain localities and streets, an advantage might be gained. This is not too much to say when for the majority of the largest cities the claim is made that in them prostitution is almost ubiquitous. I am satisfied that, for example here in Berlin, there are not many streets in which there are no prostitutes, and that on the other hand there are streets in which one or more prostitutes live in almost every house, and when we consider that by far the greatest number of prostitutes dwell in the quarters occupied by the poor families in the great tenement houses it is apparent without anything further that there is a very great demoralizing influence which is exercised by this universal presence of prostitution among the population. Even if in the dwellings where prostitutes dwell there are no children, yet on the same floor or in the house there may be children and growing youths and maidens who day by day have before them the shameless conduct of these prostitutes. It appears self-evident that the sense of modesty is dulled by this means and that moral self-control is disturbed and that those who are in danger are easily brought to the steep places of vice. To set aside this demoralizing influence of prostitution altogether naturally is something that can never be done, but even by a partial sequestration of prostitution at least a partial improvement of the situation can be made and also in

another direction the restriction of a number of prostitutes to several civic localities would make an improvement possible. I mean the diminution of the solicitation by prostitutes on the open streets. The conditions in a great number of the great streets of the larger cities and those also in Berlin are in fact greatly to be deplored. It is almost incredible with what openness the majority of the prostitutes conduct their solicitation on the streets, and how in consequence certain streets have been taken possession of by the prostitutes to such an extent that in the evening or at night decent women or girls cannot pass through these streets because they are considered prostitutes and are assailed by men in the most disagreeable way.

Ability to resist temptation, especially on the streets, is a serious factor, as can easily be understood. The man who is going on his way quietly without sexual intentions, finally, after he has been again and again attacked and the sexual nature disturbed, yields and follows the last of the prostitutes who speaks to him. The same man would under no conditions go to a house of ill fame, because this would imply a previous sexual purpose. That the incitements on the street have a great influence on the increase of sexual intercourse with prostitutes there can be no doubt, and for this reason restriction or segregation of a number of prostitutes would offer an immediate improvement, although of course a complete suppression of provocation on the street cannot be regarded as possible.

The control of employment bureaus.—The connection between the social evil and bureaus of employment in our large cities is described with painful accuracy from direct personal observation by Frances A. Kellor in her book *Out of Work*, Putnams (1904). She says:

But the . . . business methods and the frauds pale into insignificance beside conscious deliberate immorality of many offices and the traps they set for their unwary and helpless victims. Of these the honest employer knows but little and the employee recalls many escapes. The bare fact is that while advertising honest work and while furnishing it to some, many also degrade, debase, and ruin others and later cast them out moral and physical wrecks. Not only are they robbed of their small savings, hoarded like animals, and subjected to many indignities by proprietors, but they must submit to association with and temptation by street walkers and immoral men. Not only must they lodge under conditions which rob them of their self-respect, but unsuspectingly they are sold into disreputable houses and held as prisoners.

Not all offices are engaged in this work, though with few exceptions

they are careless in making inquiries where girls are sent. Figures can only be approximate, but it is no exaggeration to say, that in New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago, about 75 per cent. are not averse to sending women as employees to questionable places, and from 40 to 60 per cent. send them as inmates, obtaining their consent when possible.

The details given by Miss Kellor are painful and startling in the extreme but must be read in her interesting volume.

This chapter is in no sense of the word intended as a contribution to the extent of dealing with the social evil, whether it shall be regulated, exterminated, licensed, tolerated, or whether it is necessary or otherwise. Its sole purpose is to show one source of supply—places where unwilling recruits are secured; and to insist that some methods are unfair and that some offices are sailing under false colors. Even granting that neither regulation nor segregation will affect the demand, one thing is certain: increase the risk and the majority of such offices will retrench their work or go out of business, for they will do nothing that will not pay—and honest, ignorant, and helpless girls will be much better protected; for disreputable houses cannot so readily reach women who are penniless, friendless, and discouraged—the time when such proposals are most favorably received.

Associations for combating the social evil.—Teachers should be acquainted with the more important organizations working on behalf of social purity. These organizations have grown rapidly in numbers and in power during the past decade as the public is becoming more intelligent. An article in the new *Encyclopedia of Social Reform*, by Dr. Bliss, p. 1127, gives some information:

In Europe there is a National Federation for the Abolition of State Regulation of Vice. Its headquarters are at Geneva, Switzerland, and it has committees in various countries. This federation publishes sixteen different periodicals in seven different languages. The British Committee has its office at 17 Tothill Street, Westminster, S. W., London, England. The secretary is Mr. Maurice Gregory and the organ of that office is called *The Shield*. The International Bureau for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic has for its secretary Mr. William Alexander Cotte, with offices at St. Mary's Chambers, 161-A Strand, London, W. C. This bureau has a committee known as a National Vigilance Committee with a branch in the United States. Dr. O. Edward Janney of Baltimore is the chairman of this committee in this country, and state associations have been formed. The White Cross Society, established by the Bishop of Durham, England, in 1883, and taken up in this country by Rev. B. F. DeCosta,

D.D. should be mentioned. The principal purposes of this organization are. First, to urge upon men the obligation of personal purity; second, to raise the level of public opinion upon public morality; third, to secure proper legislation in connection with morality. The New England Watch and Ward Society, having as its secretary Mr. J. Frank Chase, Boston, Mass., is one of the oldest societies in this country. It combats obscene literature, gambling, and vice. The New York Association for the Suppression of Vice, led by Mr. Anthony Comstock, devotes its efforts chiefly against obscene literature and degrading instruments of vice. The American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis seeks to limit the spread of diseases which have their origin in social evil. It was founded by the eminent physician, Dr. Prince A. Morrow of New York City. A society with similar purposes is established in Chicago—The Chicago Society of Social Hygiene—and the Milwaukee Society for Sanitary and Moral Education. There are others. All work largely through publications. The Women's Christian Temperance Union; the Young Women's and Young Men's Christian Associations; the King's Daughters; the National Council of Women; the Congress of Mothers; many women's clubs and various law and order societies in our cities have all undertaken this crusade. In most of the large cities may be found the rescue missions of the Catholic church and of other denominations of Christians, and the Florence Crittenden missions. The Health Education League at 113 Devonshire Street, Boston, Mass., publishes as No. 16 in the "Health Education Series" a little circular on *Sexual Hygiene*, by a member of the Massachusetts medical society. This league is doing excellent work.

Origin of the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis in this country.—The first gun fired in this movement was a paper on "The Prophylaxis of Venereal Diseases in New York City," read before the Medical Society of the County of New York, February, 1901. This was followed by the report of the Committee of Seven, New York, in December, 1901. An effort was then made to organize a society for the study and prevention of venereal diseases in this country, but it met with neither medical nor lay support. *Social Diseases and Marriage* was written in 1903 largely with a view of creating a professional sentiment in favor of this work. This was followed by a "Plea for the Organization of a Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis" read before the New York County Medical Society in May, 1904. Finally after months of personal solicitation the following named gentlemen united with me in a call for a meeting, February 8, 1905, to discuss the wisdom and expediency of forming a society for the prevention of social diseases: Dr. Stephen Smith, Dr. Edward L. Keyes,

Dr. George B. Fowler, Dr. L. Bolton Bangs, Dr. Edward L. Janeway, and Dr. Abraham Jacobi.¹⁷

Conclusion.—The sexual appetite is natural and universal; it serves a purpose. But it must be regarded from the social standpoint, in connection with the duty of having and caring for children, not from the selfish standpoint, as a mere means of fleshly gratification, with no moral or social object. This is the essential evil.¹⁸ The state must tolerate and control; it ought not to recognize prostitution in any way as legitimate. At best, law, police, government can do little more than affect the external conduct; they do not reach the springs of action, the habitual incentives, the active ideas, the personal motives, the spiritual valuations of satisfactions. Admitting all that may properly be claimed for the favorable reaction of even compulsory observance of decent requirements on the inner life, we must look to some influence far deeper and more pervasive for the ultimate self-regulation of life in accordance with the laws of social welfare and of the noblest life. This influence is education, and therefore we now turn from the medical profession and from the statesmen to that profession which deals with the character, the will, the moral nature in the most direct and persuasive way; we make our appeal to the school teachers, the parents, the spiritual counselors of children and youth. This will be the theme of the other part of this Handbook.

¹⁷ From letter of Dr. Prince A. Morrow to the writer.

¹⁸ Cf. Max Gruber, *Die Prostitution*, p. 33.

THE EIGHTH YEARBOOK
OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC
STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART II

EDUCATION WITH REFERENCE TO SEX
AGENCIES AND METHODS

BY

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WITH A PAPER ON

SEX INSTRUCTION IN HIGH SCHOOLS

BY

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President of the American Academy of Medicine and chairman of its
standing committee on teaching of hygiene

THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE CHICAGO MEETINGS OF THE
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PREFACE

In Part I of this study evidence has been offered to prove that education in matters of sex is demanded by justice to childhood, to youth, to womankind, and to the race. Hitherto too generally educators—parents, pastors, teachers, and publishers—have shifted the responsibility from one to another, and tacitly agreed to neglect it. With what results may be seen by those who will take the pains to read the scientific statements cited and summarized in Part I, published separately, and in the medical works there abundantly quoted. It is indeed a sad and revolting story, but patriotic and philanthropic service frequently requires the subordination of aesthetic tastes to the demands of a world of suffering. To be too nice may be brutal cruelty.

INTRODUCTION

EDUCATION IN RELATION TO THE SEXUAL LIFE

Definition.—The word “education” is here used in a very wide sense, yet it is limited to the conscious and purposeful efforts of adults who seek to guide children and youth. Unquestionably nature and social life give instruction and shape character, quite apart from any intentional labor of parents and teachers; but we shall refer to these forces only so far as they may be directed and controlled by persons having an educational purpose.

The end of education, as here concerned, is found in the meaning of life itself.

1. *Personality.*—We may first think of education as the process of developing all the powers of a human personality. Only as we gain an adequate and worthy conception of man himself do we realize the significance of the teacher’s work. In no field of education is it more vital to have a clear and well-grounded conception of the end of all educational work than here. The very springs of action and power are in our convictions as to the dignity and worth of the human person. Many of the most fatal fallacies and sophistries which confuse men’s judgments in relation to sex morality thrive in the noisome swamps of unworthy notions of the rights of even the lowest of human beings, the weakest, the most ignorant, the most vile. One cannot despise even a harlot without lowering his moral vitality.

The entire movement of recent years started from the medical profession, because physicians were alarmed at the horrible consequences of venereal disease, at the physical miseries which spring from prostitution, and especially the sufferings of good women. But suppose it were possible to prevent venereal disease by the general use of precautions already known to physicians, while illicit pleasures went on; would our goal be reached? Is the prophylaxis of gonorrhea and syphilis the final end of this effort? The very title of the great and useful German society goes no farther: “Deutsche Gesellschaft zur Bekaempfung der Geschlechtskrankheiten.” The medical origin of the society is clear, and it has full justification, since physicians are the men whose social duty it is

to combat disease. A few—a very few—physicians have written on the subject in a manner to give the impression that the chief social task is to make sin safe! Not until we study the effects of venereal excesses and abuses on the personality, on the soul, can we understand and fully realize the purpose of this crusade, this contest for possession of the holy land of the spirit.

Even from the medical standpoint, that of solicitude for public health, the moral factors are of supreme importance. Every physician worthy of the honored name will insist that the best and the only sure and final prevention of these diseases is not a chemical bactericide, or mercury, or iodine, but a noble purpose, a clean character.

It is not a preacher but a physician in a medical discussion who voices this profound truth:

May state and society accept this spiritual and moral condition of prostitution simply as something given and unchangeable, and declare that this lost outcast is good for nothing but for satisfaction of male lust? No one can deny that this were scorn of the essence of the moral doctrine of Christianity, which we, in my opinion, must protect from destruction as the pillar which supports our entire civilization. The gospel teaches that we are all "called," that all men are children of God, that is, that every man preserves the power to rise out of the animal into something higher, and, in the measure of his faculties, to be the vessel and bearer of culture, which is in essence morality, and thereby to acquire freedom from the blindness and soul poverty of daily existence; that therefore every man represents an independent worth, an end in himself, and no man may be used as a thing; not even for a social end.¹

Of syphilis and venereal diseases in general, the true prophylaxis lies in self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control, combined with a due regard for the inalienable rights and the deepest interests of others, the claims of the weak and the dictates of honor.²

2. Social obligation.—While a human being cannot be made a mere thing, a means to the satisfaction of selfish gratification, nor a slave of society, yet personality is incomplete in isolation; individuality is not synonymous with selfishness. He is poor, starved, and mean as well as miserable who does not joyfully find his best self

¹ Dr. W. Gruber, *Die Prostitution*, etc., p. 32.

² R. J. Pye-Smith (at the seventy-sixth annual meeting of the British Medical Association, 1908), *British Medical Journal*, August 1, 1908, p. 259.

in free service to others, in a course of conduct which contributes to the well-being of his fellows.

Education must aim to furnish discipline for a rational community life; and the most important part of that life is the production, maintenance, and proper education of children and youth. Artificial avoidance of the responsibilities of having children in many well-situated families is often due to the fact that considerations of selfish comfort and ease determine the conduct, and men and women ignore their obligations to the race.

It is a pressing problem to know what to do to increase the birth rate of the superior stocks and keep proportionate at least the contribution of the inferior stocks. One of the most promising influences is the Eugenic movement started in England by Galton and Pearson to make proper procreation a part of religion and ethics, rather than a matter of whim only.*

According to the general belief of our nation each man has relations with God and obligations to him. Religious education is an essential part of general education; for personality is undeveloped while the religious nature slumbers, and social duties are imperfectly felt and valued apart from consideration of the Perfect, the altogether Good, the heavenly Father. In religion, as the supreme and comprehensive experience, the significance of personality, the worth of the individual, the sanctions of social duty come to the finest flower and sweetest fruit.

We do not reject the help of any right-minded man or woman who cannot travel with us so far; we gratefully accept all the help a merely ethical or aesthetic culture can give us; but those who have had one vision of God can never think, or act, or teach again as if that vision had never been at least momentarily in their experience.

Scope of educational activity.—In this discussion of educational methods to correct evils and guide conduct in a rational path we mean to include three aspects of spiritual action: control, instruction, and nurture. Other words may be used for the same things, and no classification can be made satisfactory to all; but the methods we are to consider may fairly be brought under these titles as convenient signs.

1. We shall see that control is especially necessary in infancy

* Report of the Committee on Eugenics, *American Breeders' Association*, Vol. IV, 1908 (President D. S. Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, chairman).

and early childhood, and also in reformatory education where vicious habits must be broken and new habits formed after years of perverted conduct. Under this head belong the care of infants by parents and nurses before any formal instruction or conscious self-direction can be employed.

2. Instruction is here used to designate the process of communication of knowledge; and, in particular, in this discussion, knowledge of the conditions and laws of wholesome living in relation to sex. It is the intellectual or rational aspect of education.

3. Nurture is here meant to indicate all that part of education which is due to the personal influence of teachers, companions, and associates, to the force of choice in acts of will and formation of habits, and the use of ideals of character from history, literature, and all the arts.

Each of these methods of shaping thought, feeling, and will must be employed wisely, persistently, and systematically in order to arm and equip the youth for self-direction, self-control, and worthy character.

Co-operating agents.—In the educational process, whether general or special, we have need of a systematic, sympathetic, unified co-operation of all the social agents of control, instruction, and nurture. Every one of these agencies has a certain peculiar force and function of its own. We mention here: (a) parents; (b) teachers, from kindergarten to university; (c) church and Sunday school; (d) physicians; (e) authors and editors. There are other powerful social agencies whose part in the educational process is great, but whose conscious effort is less directly educational, as actors, painters, business and political leaders. In certain particular fields and for particular parts of our task we have a right to claim the helpful co-operation of such agencies as: parental associations in connection with schools, teachers' associations, medical societies, societies of social hygiene or moral prophylaxis, health boards and commissioners, state and national health leagues, juvenile courts, reform societies for promoting personal purity, night missions, refuges for girls, dispensaries and hospitals, library censors, police censors of places of amusement, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association, girls' clubs, women's clubs, churches, and adult Bible classes.

CHAPTER I

CARE OF INFANCY WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO SEX LIFE

There are able writers who refuse to discuss the care and control of infancy in connection with education, since the element of formal instruction is wanting and the subject is relatively passive. We need not here quarrel with this view, and we do not insist that this early regulation of life should be called education. Thus we avoid a fruitless controversy. We are sure that all well-informed teachers will recognize the immense importance of those habits which are started in infancy, even from the hour of birth or before. Citations from medical authorities will make the nature and extent of this factor very clear.

On the care of infants Dr. Griffith¹ recommends the avoidance of local irritation, as phimosis, worms in the bowel, inflammation, and constant supervision to guard against masturbation which sometimes begins very early with both male and female infants.

Masturbation is the most injurious of all the bad habits, and should be broken up just as early as possible. Children should especially be watched at the time of going to sleep and on first waking. Punishments and mechanical restraint are of little avail except with infants. With older children they usually make matters worse. Rewards are much more efficacious. It is of the utmost importance to watch the child closely, to keep his confidence, and by all possible means to teach self-control. Some local cause of irritation is often present, which can be removed. Medical advice should at once be sought.²

The necessity for right care of infants and young children in the home being admitted, we are brought face to face with serious educational problems: How can parents be taught this duty and the best way to perform it? Is there not a social need for classes of young women before and after marriage, where they can be

¹ J. P. C. Griffith, M.D., *The Care of the Baby*, p. 358.

² L. Emmett Holt, M.D., *The Care and Feeding of Children*, p. 188. The two books here cited contain a valuable fund of information on all matters of the hygiene and care of infants and young children. Cf. Mme. Augusta Mott-Weill, *Le foyer domestique*, and *La femme, la mère et l'enfant*.

taught the principles and methods of care of infants? Whose duty is it to organize such classes and who should conduct them?

Personal hygiene and training in relation to sexual inhibition, control, and health.—After the care of infancy the child and youth must be taught and trained to take care of the body in all respects, for sexual hygiene is only a part of wholesome living in general. At a later point more specific suggestions will be made.

CHAPTER II

IDEAL INTERESTS

Ideal interests are necessary to conquer and rule lusts.

Only some *other* passion will accomplish the desired control. With the Greeks, it was aesthetic passion, love of the grace and beauty, the rhythm and harmony, of a self-controlled life. With the Romans, it was the passion for dignity, power, honor of personality, evidenced in rule of appetite. But the passion for purity, the sense of something degrading and foul in surrender to the base, an interest in something spotless, free from adulteration, are, in some form or other, the chief resource in overcoming the tendency of excitement to usurp the governance of the self.¹

The gifted Dr. F. H. Montgomery, in a conversation with the author shortly before the death of that honored physician, urged the preparation of a circular for the Society of Social Hygiene which should make its appeal more directly to the ethical, aesthetic, and religious interests of boys and men. His worthy life and his professional position gave weight to this counsel. Some parts of this volume are written in response to his earnest charge.

In the *Star of Hope*, a paper published by convicts in a New York prison, one of the articles begins with this citation: "Trust in God and think of your mother, and evil will be powerless to tempt you." This advice was imparted by a noble sage to a class of Oxford graduates. Once, also, a moral philosopher was asked: "What memory, if any, would check a man's pursuit of sin, if religion failed?" And the answer promptly came, "Mother." From persons as widely separated as the sage and the convict comes the same testimony to the power of an ideal, especially when embodied in a fine personality.

It is in this sphere of influence that teachers may best work for purity and health; and, on the whole, even without systematic moral instruction, this self-denying, laborious, and useful profession has labored for worthy ideals and not in vain. Many a lad can testify that the refining influence of a woman teacher has helped

¹ Dewey and Tufts, *Ethics*, p. 410.

to keep him far from the base influence of unfit associations. The poetry and noble prose, the music married to immortal verse, made familiar and attractive even in humble elementary schools, and the unselfish, patriotic sentiments kindled at these altars, have made a career of impurity morally impossible for multitudes of men. Therefore, if some teacher feels herself unfitted, from ignorance of biology and hygiene, or from unconquerable timidity, to help tempted children and youth by specific instruction, let her never for a moment be discouraged or conscience-hurt. She may do something, indirectly and unconsciously, by her beautiful life, and by her enthusiasm for noble literature and biography, which the most scientific physician might be utterly unable to accomplish.

The brevity of these hints must not be interpreted as an indication that the subject is of minor importance.

CHAPTER III

FORMAL INSTRUCTION IN MATTERS OF SEX: NORMAL SATISFACTION OF THE SCIENTIFIC INTEREST

Having already considered what needs to be done in relation to personal hygiene and general training, we now approach the delicate problem raised by a theoretical interest, never entirely free from a prurient element caused by specific appetite in youths and adults.¹ Ignorance is not the only cause of excess, abuse, and vice; for natural appetite, especially when perverted, is a force even in spite of knowledge, and many a man gratifies his impulses although he knows well all the evil consequences. Yet ignorance is one important factor, and knowledge, if rightly imparted, is a help to the nobler life.

I am now convinced that the uplifting of the morality of our people lies, above all and everything else, in educating the children, rationally and morally. I believe that more evil has been done by the squeamishness of parents who are afraid to instruct their children in the vital facts of life, than by all the other agencies of vice put together. I am determined to overcome this obstacle to our national morality. I have not the slightest hesitation in saying that the right way has been found at last. Thousands of men have asked me why they were not taught the danger of vice in their youth, and I have had no reply to make to them. I intend now, with God's help, to remove this reproach from our land.²

The interest awakened in England is significant and encouraging for us. The story is told in the *Ladies' Home Journal* in the issue just cited.

When the popular Bishop of London was in this country, last year, he became intensely interested, it is said, in the awakening that had been created here as to the subject of the false modesty of parents with their children on the mystery of sex, and subsequent events seem to prove that the matter made a deep impression on the famous prelate's mind.

After the Bishop got home he grouped around him a company of the most distinguished men and women of England: the venerable Archbishop

¹ On the task of a good "sexual pedagogics," see A. Blaschko, *Sexualpädagogik*, 3 Kong. Deut. Gesell. B. G. p. 4, 1907.

² The Bishop of London, *Ladies' Home Journal*, May, 1908.

of York; the Bishops of Ripon, Southwark, Durham, and Hereford; the Dean of Canterbury; Canon Scott Holland, of Saint Paul's Cathedral; the Honorable E. Lyttleton, head master of Eton, the great English school; such foremost Nonconformist clergymen of England as the Reverends Thomas Spurgeon, F. B. Meyer, John Clifford, R. J. Campbell: such laymen, famed for philanthropy and wealth, as George Cadbury, W. T. Stead, Grattan Guinness, and before these men of influence he laid his conviction that the root of the "social evil" lay in this so-called "parental modesty," and that in the quickening of the parental conscience lay the remedy for the lifting up of England's moral tone which has for so long been the despair of England's foremost men. The Bishop offered to place himself at the head of a great moral crusade, the like of which has never before been seen in England, that would seek mainly to awaken the conscience of the parent-hood of England, and point out to every father and mother that the future moral welfare of the United Kingdom rested in doing away with the present false modesty, and in the frank and honest instruction of their children.

Every man in that notable meeting in London saw the force of the Bishop's idea; thousands of dollars were immediately subscribed; the personal co-operation of everyone present was gladly offered; men at the head of great commercial affairs promised their time, money, and services, and today a great crusade is under way in England.

More than one hundred meetings in London alone have been arranged for, in addition to several hundreds of meetings in every town and village in the kingdom; pamphlets are being prepared and will be distributed by the million; the head master of every great college and school will take a personal part; a special periodical called "Prevention" will be issued and distributed to every parent in England. And at the head and in the midst of this wonderfully well-conceived and far-reaching movement stands the Bishop of London uttering the words printed in the center of this page as the slogan for the campaign upon which he has entered for the good of England, and also these further words: "There shall be plain talking," says the Bishop of London; "the time has gone by for whispers and paraphrases. Boys and girls must be told what these great vital facts of life mean, and they must be given the proper knowledge of their bodies and the proper care of them. No abstractions: the only way now is to be frank, man to man." And to this important work are now to be devoted the great energies and widespread influence of this distinguished English prelate; probably, nay, unquestionably, the most popular man in the Church of England today.

The action of the Diocese of Massachusetts is worthy of mention as an indication of the interest of thoughtful leaders of the churches whose attention has been called to the facts.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC MORALS

To the Convention of the Diocese of Massachusetts:

Your Committee were appointed to make inquiry into the prevalence of immorality and its results; to recommend what, if any, measures are advisable to awaken a sense of responsibility among parents, teachers, physicians, and clergymen for the instruction of the young in personal purity; and to recommend any means which may help to diminish corrupting agencies or to build up a healthy antagonism to whatever undermines public morals.

The appointment of this Committee was largely due to the statements made in publications of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis and in recent discussions of medical associations. As these declared a condition which implied a wide spread of immorality, your Committee felt that it was their first duty to learn the facts.

They therefore addressed a circular to a number of the leading medical authorities in this part of the country, asking their belief as to these facts, and also requesting recommendations as to abating immorality. They have received replies from thirty-seven leading physicians, some of whom are recognized authorities upon these subjects. As these authorities are well nigh unanimous in condemning silence and the resulting ignorance to which in large measure these evils are due, your Committee feel it to be their duty to speak plainly.

It is agreed that venereal diseases are very widespread. Of these diseases, syphilis has always been recognized as highly infectious and dangerous involving both the guilty and innocent in its consequences. Gonorrhea, however, has been so generally regarded as easily cured and attended by no serious results, that most of the physicians whom we have consulted urge that the recent discovery of its malign effects ought to be widely made known. They say that it is the most widespread of all diseases among the male adult population.

That it has serious consequences upon innocent wives.

That about one-third of all venereal infections in women in the records of private practice are communicated by husbands.

That gonorrheal infection is responsible for nearly one-half of sterile marriages.

That it is as powerful a factor of depopulation as syphilis.

That one-fifth of all cases of blindness is due to gonococcic infection.

That the number of separations and divorces on account of marital

infection from venereal disease is much larger than is commonly supposed; and

That these crimes against women are largely due to ignorance.

The only apology for the open statement of facts like these is that in no other way can the public be aroused to combat the evil. The policy of silence has been an utter failure.

We therefore call upon *parents* to feel their sacred responsibility for judicious instruction of children as to sex and the relation of personal purity to health and happiness. With boys especially, it is not, as is too often supposed, an alternative of knowledge or ignorance, but of proper instruction from those they love and respect, or of partial, distorted, and vicious knowledge.

It is the business of fathers and mothers to know these things and to be perfectly frank with their children. If for any reason they feel themselves unable to do this, let them take counsel with the family physician upon the subject. Mothers especially should instruct their daughters, for young women are strangely ignorant in these matters. They should tell their daughters the fearful risk they undergo if they marry men who have led immoral lives. Parents should know the companions of their children, especially the young men with whom their daughters are acquainted.

A responsibility also rests upon *teachers* for their moral example and influence. There should be education of boys and girls as to sex by someone, outside the home if it cannot be had there. Careful instruction should be given by physicians, competent to teach biology and physiology, in high and preparatory schools, and to the freshmen classes in colleges and universities.

A greater responsibility rests upon *physicians*. One who is an authority upon this subject says: "The ignorance in regard to these diseases is very great, and general ignorance is to some extent based on inaccurate and incomplete knowledge in the medical profession. Within the last few years, and since the advent of bacteriology, these diseases are found to be more serious and far-reaching in their effects than was formerly believed."

Physicians should demand proper hospital treatment for the infected, both for their relief and for the safety of the innocent. Additional separate hospital provision ought to be made for this purpose, as at present such cases are generally refused. Opportunities for the hospital study of such cases, which are now very meagre, could thus be had.

We expect of physicians explicit and positive contradiction of the fallacy current among men, and sometimes sanctioned by pretended medical authority, that sexual continence is ever harmful to health. They should also tell patients in private practice how dangerous these maladies are and

how long, after persons fancy themselves cured, they may still be a menace to others.

Physicians should educate patients in hospitals and dispensaries by means of printed or other definite instructions.

A serious responsibility rests upon the *church*. Clergymen should teach positively the glory of purity. They should insist upon a single standard for men and women, and urge the reformation of the social code in this respect. The instinct of chivalry and heroism in men should be appealed to, to protect and defend womanhood. There should be clear and positive instruction in these matters to boys in confirmation classes.

Especially should clergymen hold up the Christian ideal of the body as a sacred thing—because it is the temple of the Holy Ghost. St. Paul asks: (I Cor. 6:15) "Know ye not that your bodies are the members of Christ? Shall I then take the members of Christ and make them the members of an harlot?" It should always be recognized that fornication is sacrilege in God's eyes.

In order to awaken this deeper sense of responsibility among parents, teachers, physicians, and clergymen, there should be carefully prepared literature, which should not be too technical nor diffuse. Such literature should be widely disseminated either by Societies of medical men for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, or by such organizations as the New England Watch and Ward Society.

As means for removing corrupting agencies, the following measures have been recommended by physicians:

Every wise effort against intemperance is an aid to purity. The rôle of alcohol in instigating immoral relations and spreading venereal diseases is very little appreciated. "A large proportion of men and a still larger proportion of women owe their initial debauch to the influence of alcohol."

The ambitious standards of social life and the increased cost of living are largely responsible for the postponement of marriage; and late marriages are in part answerable for immorality. The average age of the first marriage of men has within a century changed from twenty-two years to twenty-seven years, and it is during these five years that a vast amount of incontinence occurs. Public sentiment should honor young people who are willing to endure comparative poverty and privation in order to establish a home.

Another reform which should be undertaken is the suppression of medical advertisements. The scoundrels who thus attract the victims of these diseases either excite undue fears, or by pretended cures produce undue confidence. Persons ill with venereal diseases should put them-

selves under the care of reputable physicians. Legislation should be sought to forbid the demoralizing advertisements of quacks.

Public morals are also helped by every effort to improve industrial conditions and so to lift the pressure from many poor young women. Some shops, department stores and factories, through poor pay and the heartlessness of employers, expose the girls in their employ to strong temptations.

One of the most corrupting agencies of the present day is the sensational newspaper, whose exciting tales of vice and reports of crime have a demoralizing influence upon all who read them. Christian people have a duty here, and should not buy, and still more, should *refuse to advertise* in such papers.

The church cannot afford to be remiss in this every-day fight against the world, the flesh and the devil. Your Committee respectfully urge that this convention should beg Christians everywhere to join in a more open, explicit and earnest battle against the organized forces of evil.

FREDERICK B. ALLEN,
ALEXANDER MANN,
CHARLES N. FIELD,
GEORGE L. PAINE,
JEFFERY R. BRACKETT,
M. GRANT DANIELL,
ROBERT AMORY.

I. NECESSITY FOR GIVING INFORMATION

The necessity for giving some kind of instruction is now more generally acknowledged than it was a few years ago. It is seen that the child and the youth, from curiosity and wonder, are sure to inquire and learn the facts of sex. It is also only too painfully manifest that almost uniformly the information gained is partly false, mixed with base suggestion, expressed in coarse and salacious terms, and connected with unworthy and debasing ideas of sex. It is not a question of whether children and youth will learn, but only of the manner of their learning.

One important consideration in determining the ages for different details of instruction is the limitation of the opportunity for giving them. Nineteen-twentieths of children, and they of the poorer families, never go beyond grammar grades. Of 730,000 in the seventh and eighth grades only 390,000 continue, nearly one-half dropping out at twelve or thirteen years of age. Of 245,000 in the ninth grade (thirteen to fourteen years of age), only 74,000, the remnant of the 5,000,000 entering eight years before, are

graduated (sixteen to seventeen years of age). If saving knowledge of the Creator's laws is to reach his people it must be adapted to these conditions as far as possible.³

II SCIENTIFIC INTEREST

The theoretical interest in the phenomena of sex which asks for rational satisfaction in true science arises in connection with: (a) the anatomy and physiology of the human body; (b) the origin of living beings—birth and generation; (c) the explanation, after puberty, of sexual sensations and experiences—erotic dreams, nocturnal emissions, menstrual periods, sexual desires; (d) the truth about sexual commerce, illicit and legitimate; its purpose and use; its dangers, effects; temptations and ways of escape; modesty, etc.

Now it is manifest that theoretical interest is not concerned with all of these problems at once. The little child asks questions of its own; youth raises entirely new problems; while adult experience with marriage and parenthood demands still further knowledge.

III. DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAYS OF IMPARTING CORRECT INFORMATION

1. The excitement of erotic appetite is one of the chief dangers encountered. However strongly we may be convinced that instruction is needed we cannot safely conceal from ourselves the perils of even well-intended efforts. After puberty the images and ideas connected with sex tend to awaken specific sensations by acting on certain nerve centers, to increase the circulation of blood in the organs of reproduction, and to quicken secretion in the glands connected with these organs; and all this is followed by demand for relief in satisfaction of the sexual appetite, especially with boys. An eminent teacher said wisely: Never put into the mind anything which you do not want to remain there.

2. Unless knowledge is very carefully presented the teaching may stimulate prurient curiosity, which again may lead to perilous experiments of boys and girls, with danger of life-long injury and disgrace.

It is said that when little children are told in school any facts about sex they go out to tell them, often in perverted form, to

³ *Instruction in the Physiology and Hygiene of Sex* (by a member of the Society of Social and Moral Prophylaxis), p. 19.

other children. Perhaps occasionally some harm arises from this fact. But would not the same children quite naturally talk over these matters together under any circumstances, and is it not better their conversation should be guided by adult science than by ignorance, fable, lies, and vulgar speech of unfit persons? Something can be done to dissuade children from talking unnecessarily on the subject, just as they can be taught and trained to modesty and good taste in regard to other matters.

3. The difficulty in the case of parents is very great, because the information must suggest a personal element which fathers and mothers hesitate to disclose to their children. The art of teaching is here put to its severest tests by the necessity to make this very personal factor a means of giving sacredness and dignity to facts which are too often associated with merely animal impulses and acts.

4. Another difficulty of very serious nature is that, in common speech, we have a very imperfect vocabulary to make known the facts about the organs, parts, and functions of reproduction. The unwritten vocabulary of childhood and coarse associations is itself an incitement to lust, a debasing and soiling agency. In nature-study the child may unconsciously be accustomed to a precise, clean, and dignified vocabulary which may be used for our purpose.

5. One difficulty of teaching in school is the irrational opposition of parents and others. Part of this opposition is well-grounded: the teachers are seldom prepared, seldom have the fundamental biological knowledge to do it perfectly.

If we are to attain any practical result, we must carefully heed actual conditions, set aside merely future requirements, and limit ourselves to that which the authorities and all parents of insight after fair trial can approve.⁴

IV. PATHS OF APPROACH IN FORMAL INSTRUCTION

1. Through nature-study, biology, botany, zoölogy. From a very early period of childhood the person may, at a time when erotic appetites are unfelt, gradually become familiar with the life cycle of plants, growth, flower, fertilization, formation of seed, reproduction of the species, and so on over and over through generations. The window garden is large enough to recite the story of life

⁴ Professor Schäfenacker, *Sexualpädagogik*, D.G.B.G., p. 94.

in fair and charming forms, processes, and colors, in winter or in summer, even in the poorest tenement. But here the mother often needs the help of a teacher because she may know nothing of the revelations of modern biology.

All the essential facts and principles may be made familiar to young children where pet birds, poultry, dogs, and cats are kept in the household. In fact, children usually do discover, in a fragmentary and often undesirable way, much more than their parents give them credit for; and they will talk freely with each other when they will not talk to adults, because they soon discover that in the world and society of grown-ups the whole matter is *tabu*. Reticence is not due, in the case of young children, to any sense of moral wrong, but simply to an artificially induced fear of offending elders for some mysterious and unknown reason. With ignorant and rude servants they are often more at ease, unfortunately.

It is impossible to treat thoroughly the life history of plants and animals and ignore the reproductive system. If any school authorities determine to keep the discussion of sex out of their schools they must simply refuse to introduce modern biology and to resist the movement in favor of scientific instruction which has done so much for modern education. Any prudish attempt to ignore the reproductive organs in class will excite a morbid interest in them and defeat the moral purpose of the teacher.

Assuming for the moment that botany and zoölogy, whether as nature-study or in systematic form, are to be taught by modern methods and by competent teachers, let us consider what is involved. The entire plant or animal lies on the table and is carefully examined with the aid of lenses, and microscope.⁵ Does anyone familiar with the laboratory method for a moment imagine that the children and youth will observe the forms and functions of organs of alimentation, digestion, absorption, circulation, excretion, sensation, motion, and co-ordination and not have the slightest curiosity about the form and function of the organs which secure the perpetuation of the species? If the teacher attempts to conceal these parts and to intimate that the study of them is improper, he cor-

⁵ It is assumed here that the textbook method, without dissections, is abandoned by all competent teachers.

rupts the moral sense, kindles prurient interest, and loses the confidence of his students.

Much may be said in favor of having young people taught biological subjects in separate classes, with teachers of the same sex as the members of the class; but no sound argument can be advanced for a study of these subjects merely by means of expurgated textbooks without observations and dissections of the organized living creatures themselves. At least I shall not occupy any space in this volume to plead for truly scientific methods in nature-study.

a. Nature-study is a good introduction to sexual pedagogy, but it is not adequate and complete. This is because man is not only an animal, a nature-object, but vastly more; he is a person, a moral being, self-directed and also under social law and spiritual obligations. If instruction stopped with explaining that reproduction is "natural," just as it is with animals, the youth might infer, is too likely to infer, that as soon as appetite and opportunity meet, the sexual act is legitimate. This would of course be ruinous. The youth needs to know the historical origin of the social inhibitions—shame, modesty, marriage, etc.—and their reasons in physiology, and economics, and the necessity of building up character by self-control. Animals have only appetite to move, direct, and control them; human beings have conscience, law, reason, science, customs, religion to guide them. For animals appetite is enough; for man appetite is only one factor among many legitimate factors.

These considerations lead one to think that the pedagogical task is far more complex than it is sometimes represented, especially by some biologists and physicians. It is true, and important to show youth, that appetite should be held in bounds by physiological considerations, such as the need of maturity and full growth of organs, the accumulation of tissue before reproduction begins, the imperfect fruit of precocious reproduction, etc. It can be shown that in case of animals the stock-breeder finds it well to keep the sexes apart, to delay reproduction, to prevent it entirely in case of "scrubs," as by castration, isolation, etc. But human control must come from the widest possible survey of all the considerations which come from the entire spiritual, moral, aesthetic, religious, and social worlds.

b. Another path of approach to sexual hygiene is in connection with the general subject of human anatomy, physiology, and personal hygiene.

c. A third avenue is that opened by the director of physical culture in family, kindergarten, school, high school, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations,⁶ clubs of boys, girls, and adults. In all these circles, physical vigor, grace, power are more and more esteemed. Girls as well as boys have set before them an ideal of bodily force and health which can readily be utilized. The ambitions of the athlete can easily be shown to be inconsistent with sexual excess and venereal diseases; a choice must be made in view of the total situation. Frequently the most influential lessons in morality are given by a blunt word from the physical director, if he is of the right character.

d. Instruction in matters of sex should be made a natural part of the whole system of instruction in science and morality, and not a subject apart. Thus in connection with lessons upon filial duty, self-respect, personal dignity, patriotism, obligations to posterity and to the race, conscience, purity, and religion the facts of sex life have their proper place.

V. SELECTION OF MATERIALS AND ADAPTATION OF METHODS OF INSTRUCTION TO STAGE OF DEVELOPMENT

It is evident that the selection of the particular facts and principles to be taught must be governed by the stage of development of the pupils. We may therefore roughly classify and analyze the facts to be taught according to the approximate age of the person: (1) the young child, (2) child at puberty, (3) adolescents, (4) adults about the time of marriage, (5) parents.

The materials of instruction should be presented in view of the discovered interests of the person. It is hurtful to anticipate the scientific curiosity and the practical needs of the pupil. So far as possible the right moment should be chosen and what is necessary to say should be said once for all, and so clearly that it will be known forever. When any statement of this order is given

⁶ See paper of George J. Fisher, M.D., in *Transactions of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*, Vol. II, 1908, pp. 130 ff.

it should be correct, scientific, precise, and notice should be served that it will not frequently be repeated, if at all.

SECTION 1. Childhood.—The interest of young children in this field relates primarily to the origin of life, and it is awakened in the form of curiosity by the birth of a baby in the family or in the family of a neighbor, or by the birth of kittens, puppies, colts, chickens, canary birds. The child in normal surroundings early becomes familiar with some of the main facts of maintenance and care, such as nourishment of the infant at the mother's breast, the presence of the father as earner of income and source of supplies for the house, and the control, affection, and sympathy of both. Quite early the young child asks: Where was baby before we saw it? How did it come to us? Who brought it? Why did it come to this house? and so on in multifarious forms.

The most common methods of quieting the persistent demands of this purely scientific interest is a myth or a theology: "The stork brought it;" "the doctor gave it to us;" "God sent it by an angel;" "it came from heaven." Sometimes the answers graze the lie direct; and the whole process may easily become a lesson in falsehood, evasion, and insincerity. There are many reasons for believing that the plain, simple, direct answer of truth is, on the whole, the most satisfactory. Many parents already have from the first told their little ones simply the fact that the baby grew under mother's heart, as a chicken grows in an egg, and that she then gave it life apart, at cost of great pain. Of course the children thus instructed will speak of what they know to others and will shock adults with their direct and matter-of-fact way of talking; but no injurious results will come. Indeed the parents win at once the confidence of the child and the mother is loved all the more when her sacrifice is even dimly understood. This is the testimony of numerous competent parents who have, with some misgivings at first, given this method a fair trial.

Adults are very apt to have groundless and unreasonable anxieties about this method because they are ignorant of the psychology of childhood and falsely imagine as existing in the minds of young children feelings which never come into consciousness until puberty arrives. The words which excite specific appe-

tite in an adult have no such effect when used by a person under ten years of age.

That which stimulates the adult sexually leaves the sexually immature child completely indifferent. Therefore one can talk with them about these matters very well in a certain way, and give them information without stirring in them specific sexual feelings.⁷

As the child grows older, especially if, as in the country, it plays with pets or goes about in fields with domestic animals, it is likely to inquire as to the part of the father in the origin of the child. Here again the rational interest is best satisfied by the truth. To tell a lie is corrupting; to evade the question is to send the eager child to some unfit teacher and to destroy confidence between parent and child. Surely there is nothing shameful in the relation, and it should never be treated as a mystery of doubtful significance. The child owes its very being to the father as well as to the mother and should be told this by father and mother when asked. Perhaps this general statement will meet the demands of the searching intellect for several years; after that the whole truth must be told in season. The most difficult and critical question usually comes later, but may at any time be urged under the pressure of some unexpected discovery, as the copulation of domestic animals, although this for a long time may have no meaning beyond a play for the child's mind.

It seems impossible to give any general rule on this subject except the pedagogic principle already stated: the interest of the child in asking a question indicates the stage of mental development at which the information should be given, but no more than is necessary to quiet the mental unrest.

It is manifestly desirable that the young inquirer should be trained to seek this kind of information *only* from the parents or person distinctly authorized by them, but best of all father and mother alone. Nor should this be difficult. In such matters as bathing, dressing, and meeting the demands of nature in urination and movement of the bowels it is not difficult to train the child to go only to the mother for help. The sense of modesty is easily developed under favorable conditions where the residence has enough rooms to furnish privacy. In tenement houses the communistic

⁷ Forel, *Die sexuelle Frage*, p. 512.

publicity of personal contacts turns the whole task of cultivating protective modesty into a tragedy. In any case the child should, as far as possible, on certain subjects live in an atmosphere of absolute and intimate confidence with parents. Wherever such intimacy and confidence are secured and maintained the child will be willing to wait for a while for information which it is not yet ripe to receive. And this is often highly desirable, because the mind should be prepared gradually for receiving information in respect to the origin of human life and the actions of parents which tend to a birth.

This preparation is commonly made by ordinary superficial observation of the anatomy, growth, and reproduction of plants and of domestic animals. Even in a city nature reveals its cycles of birth, development, reproduction, death, new generations. With the extension of small parks, with their flowers, trees, and zoölogical cages or gardens, this kind of knowledge grows more common in cities; on farms the daily life of children makes them familiar with the whole story. And it is precisely in the country, even without scientific instruction, that children grow up with that healthy view of reproductive processes which protects them in some degree from moral peril, and therefore the sexual appetite is less excited and abnormal than in cities.

But if common observation is valuable, exact and scientific observation would be better. Hence the value of nature-study in this connection; for this introduction to the knowledge of the phenomena of living organisms gives the child a more precise and accurate idea of the alimentary, circulatory, nervous, and reproductive systems of living bodies, and answers indirectly questions about human reproduction which it would be awkward to answer directly.⁸

SECTION 2.—*Puberty and early adolescence—boys.*—It is highly desirable that parents should so direct, guide, and teach their boys that the school teacher may be spared the necessity of giving instruction. Thus intelligent parents could aid the boy very much to pass through the inevitable struggles of adolescence (I) by

⁸ Cf. on this subject a valuable little book, Dr. med. Julian Marcuse, *Grundzüge einer sexuellenpädagogik in der häuslichen Erziehung*, Munich, 1908 (45 pages). As to how Helen Keller, blind-mute, was taught the origin of life in man, see her autobiography (passage cited by Dr. Marcuse, p. 283, 284).

requiring the observance of a few sensible measures of personal hygiene—frequent bathing, swimming, loose clothing, side pockets in trousers, hard bed with not too much cover, well-ventilated bedroom with windows open all the year, total abstinence from alcohol, tobacco, coffee, and tea, moderation in use of meat; (2) by helping the lad to avoid mental pictures of salacious nature, vulgar and obscene companions, pornographic circulars, vile dramatic entertainments, debasing fiction; (3) by awakening and stimulating enjoyment of outdoor life, in both sport and useful work, and so placing an emphasis on the normal boy's desire for physical superiority, industrial efficiency, social consideration. The boy should go to bed at a regular hour and be required to get out of bed the moment he is called and to come down at once. The morning hour in bed is often a moment of severe temptation; (4) by giving him stories of chivalry, in which the youth makes protection of girls and women a part of religion and honor and is induced to regard the soiling of feminine character as beneath contempt; (5) by so frankly, honestly, and completely meeting the questions of the lad about his body that no vague region of mystery shall remain as a haunt of spectral fear or prurient curiosity, so that no quack advertisement can ever gain his credence, and so that he will know a little in advance the nature of the sexual changes through which he is to pass.

When the right time arrives the boy needs to be told that he should not excite erections artificially by any sort of friction, as this will tend in some degree to form a habit difficult to break and which may seriously injure him if carried too far; that the emission of semen in sleep, accompanied more or less by dreams, must not trouble him or cause a second thought of anxiety, being merely a natural indication that he is slowly growing into manhood, though for many years will not be fully mature. Under all circumstances the boy should be taught to refrain from talking with others about matters of sex, but to talk with perfect freedom with his parents when he needs to know anything, and that if he suffers pain or weakness none but the trusted family physician should be consulted, and that without shame.⁹

⁹ See G. Stanley Hall, *Adolescence*; and his paper in *Transactions of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*, Vol. II, 1908, pp. 195 ff., as well as other papers in the same volume.

But how many years must elapse before we can hope for such instruction and training by parents to become general? This consideration leads us to inquire what, if anything, the school can do to help parents and boys in this difficult situation.

*Separate Instruction of Boys and Girls After About the
Twelfth Year*

At present we are in an experimental stage in regard to methods of instruction in matters of sex; and it is probably too early to anticipate the results of experiments now under trial in different countries. Some teachers of youth believe that boys and girls at the beginning of puberty, or before, should be taught in separate classes, at least in such subjects as biology and human physiology and hygiene, and by teachers of their own sex. They believe that instruction given under these conditions can be made more clear, plain, explicit, accurate, scientific, and that the discussions of pupils in the higher grades will be more free.

Other teachers, even in Germany, favor frank instruction in mixed classes in biology and hygiene and claim that it is done by many teachers without embarrassment or injury. They reason that if the young people are separated for such instruction it is surrounded with an air of mystery and evil, as if there were something debasing *per se* in the facts of sex, and that this very mystery debases the tone of thought and feeling on the subject.

Perhaps, since we cannot come to a general agreement at once on this point, we must continue to work as local circumstances permit, with a careful regard not to offend local public sentiment. In some regions it would be impossible to introduce these subjects in mixed classes without stirring revolt and opposition and retarding real progress for decades of years; in some cities a good beginning has been made without perceptible difficulty. No responsible superintendent will move forward faster than public opinion will warrant. Foolhardiness is not courage.

Some instruction every boy has a right to receive from his school teachers, in part from suitable persons of his own sex, even if it is necessary to call in a school physician. This necessary minimum of instruction is best given, however, as a natural part of instruction in biology, hygiene, morals, history, and literature.

In some way every boy should learn in his school the necessity of cleanliness of the entire body, the avoidance of needless friction and excitement, of open-air sports and exercise, of treating girls and women with modesty and respect, of chivalry in guarding innocence, of the effects of vice and baseness on offspring in the future.

I say this much at least should be taught boys in school before and at puberty, because for most of them it is their only chance to learn, and because at this time the school itself offers temptations before judgment and conscience have been formed. If public opinion among parents will not permit teachers to give this minimum of instruction orally, then the school authorities should call parents and physicians together, discuss with them the necessity for such information, and force the responsibility upon them.

Agricultural Schools

Forel recommends for boys the rural school home (*Landerziehungsheim*), established by Reddie in England, by Leitz in Germany, and by Frey and Zuberbuehler in Switzerland. These schools are based on ideas of Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, Owen, etc.¹⁰ Such schools must be for exceptional cases, as private boarding-schools; but public schools, especially in villages and the country, can introduce many of their features, and some have begun to do so. In order to bring out other phases of methods with boys we cite here several important passages from competent authors. We may add here the counsels of a thoughtful medical man:

The work is especially difficult, as it deals with the individual in that critical period which attends the awakening of sex. During adolescence the boy becomes conscious of the stirring of certain sensations and impulses which center in the sex organs and which may become intrusive in their claim upon his attention. Unless he has been enlightened as to the meaning and true use of the sex function and the necessity of its restraint, he is apt to regard these impulses as a sufficient guide for its exercise. It is at this period, also, that curiosity in regard to sex reaches its highest curve, and it is important that it should not be fed from poisonous sources. The social tradition which prohibits sound scientific teaching in sex, entirely

¹⁰ Forel, *The Method of Ascertaining Results of Education, Without or in Addition to Examinations*.

ignores the existence of those secret undercurrents of corrupt knowledge which everywhere circulate. From these sources the vast majority of adolescents become indoctrinated with certain erroneous ideas of the sex function and sex relationship which are most pernicious in their influence upon character and conduct: (1) That the purpose of the sex function is sensual pleasure; (2) that one has a natural right to indulge his sensual impulse as he pleases; (3) that such indulgence is a physical necessity, essential to the preservation of virility; (4) that chastity is not possible under the conditions in which the majority of young men live; (5) that this need is recognized in the setting apart of a certain class of women as instruments of sensual pleasure—all dangerous doctrines and absolutely untrue.

The state, through its educational system, has usurped the functions of parents by concerning itself with the correction of defects of sight, hearing, breathing, as well as the organs concerned in the mastication of food. If these physical defects interfere with the intellectual capacity of the pupil, disorders of the reproductive system are, in many cases at least, no less active causes of the backwardness of children. The important relation of the sex function to mental and physical development cannot be too strongly emphasized, and the effects upon the mind are often more marked than upon the body. Boys who suffer from sexual disorders are apt to be restless, dull, or listless, with an inability to concentrate their minds upon their studies. Memory is impaired, and their capacity for mental work is diminished. There is no other physical cause which has such a pronounced effect upon the morale of the individual as sexual disorders.

The dangers of the habit at an early age before the secretion of semen, and the consequent loss of seminal fluid occurs, are manifest in local irritation of the bladder and urethra, and often in general irritability and instability of the nervous system from repeated nervous shock. If the habit is continued the results are depression, vertigo, palpitations, often a sense of formication along the spine or other portions of the cutaneous surface, accompanied with marked neurasthenic symptoms. It is often the cause of pollutions and spermatorrhoea.

While epilepsy, insanity, idiocy, etc., have been alleged as the result of this habit, it is probable that they are seldom developed except in cases where there exists a marked predisposition to these diseases. Unquestionably many of the more serious results formerly ascribed to masturbation are grossly exaggerated by quacks for selfish and mercenary purposes; on the other hand there is a tendency on the part of reputable authorities to gloss over and minimize the ill effects.

As regards the specific diseases incident to sexual vice, the experience of physicians both in private and public practice shows that these diseases

are not infrequently contracted through attempted sexual intercourse by boys in their early teens, and, exceptionally at an almost incredibly early age. This precocity of sexual vice is most often seen in street boys and among the classes that visit the dispensaries. Specific diseases are more often contracted by boys from sexual perverts who use them in an unnatural way.

The teaching of purity has long been practiced by various purity federations and leagues both in this country and abroad. While too much credit cannot be given the high motives which actuate this teaching, it may be questioned whether the method employed is the wisest and best. The inculcation of purity as an abstract principle, without an understanding of the bodily conditions to which it relates, often fails of effect. Unfortunately, in these exhortations to purity the impression is often given that the whole question of sex is unclean, something shameful and even sinful; further, that punishment for sexual sin is reserved for the hereafter. Unfortunately the penalty is not sufficiently proximate to act as a deterrent. The force of this teaching would be enhanced by perfect intelligence of the laws of sex and their relation to physical health and well-being. Sensuality is a sin against the body which always carries its punishment with it, and cannot be atoned for. The individual is punished by his sins, and the penalty is personal and often immediate.

The teachings of science in regard to the sex function are always in accordance with the physical interests of the individual. Who shall teach the teachers is largely a pedagogic problem. There is no doubt an urgent need for the organization of a course of special training for teachers for this work. In my opinion no better solution of the problem could be found than the establishment in schools of pedagogy of a special course of instruction in the difficult art of teaching a delicate subject.¹¹

The effect of the use of tobacco on young lads, though not so serious as that of alcohol and certain drugs, seems to be serious.

Some candid cigarette smokers will admit that the practice creates a liking for the effects of alcohol. . . . Further, writers of authority say: "It is said to induce premature puberty; by its depressing and disturbing effects on the nerve centers it increases sexual propensities and leads to secret practices, while permanently imperiling virile powers."¹²

¹¹ Educational Pamphlet No. 4, *The Boy Problem*, by a member of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

¹² Alfred A. Woodhull, A.M., M.D., LL.D. (Prin.), sometime lecturer on personal hygiene and general sanitation, Princeton University, in *American Health*, September, 1908, p. 37.

A very suggestive book by an eminent English teacher brings out certain aspects of our problem in a helpful way:

One or two broad principles may be laid down. The first is that matter is not evil. The time-honoured doctrine which affirms the contrary is, it is true, less confidently stated than formerly, and physical science with its revelation of the nature of our bodies—scarcely less than Christian teaching as to their destiny—has saved us from any formulated heresy in these days. Yet it remains a fact that in the popular view of this subject there is much that tends to depreciate one of the greatest of all divine or natural laws—the law of the propagation of life. To a lover of nature no less than to a convinced Christian the subject ought to wear an aspect not only negatively innocent but positively beautiful. It is a recurrent miracle and yet the very type and embodiment of law; and it may be confidently affirmed that in spite of the blundering of many generations there is nothing in a normally constituted child's mind which refuses to take in the subject from this point of view, *provided that the right presentation of it is the first.*

This, then, is the first principle to be grasped, that there is nothing in natural law which may not be spiritualized in its presentation to a child. The second is that the first presentation of this particular subject is the one which prevails over all others.

The third principle concerns the procedure to be adopted. The teaching must not be isolated, but given simply as illustrating laws of nature about which something is already known. And if the facts are to be imparted so as to throw light upon other facts, the methods of teaching should be in no way peculiar, but the same as those which are found effectual in other subjects. Observation and reflection will generally tell us when a child begins to feel a curiosity about the fact of birth—when he silently discards the fables or myths with which his questions earlier in life were satisfied. The time, in the case of an ordinarily apprehensive mind, will be somewhere between eight and eleven years: and it is no objection to this rule that some children in the upper classes pass through their teens in total and contented ignorance of the whole mystery. This discussion would never have arisen unless such children were the exception. We are considering the majority. And in proceeding from the known to the unknown we shall take into account that the fact of maternity is much earlier guessed at than that of paternity. Therefore the teaching on the former ought to be made the starting-point for the teaching which deals with the latter, but of this I will speak again later.

Reference is made to the animal world just so far as the child's knowledge extends, so as to prevent the new facts from being viewed in isolation,

but the main emphasis is laid on this feeling for his mother and the instinct which exists in nearly all children of reverence due to the maternal relation; in the hope that use may be made of the natural reserve which forbids a light and careless handling of this topic among schoolboys. Of the two methods the former is more scientific, the latter is more personal, appealing to the deeper emotions of the child's heart. Which is the best?

In answering this some account must be taken of the prevailing shyness or reserve which exists between parents and children, especially on the father's side, in relation to such subjects as this. It might be supposed that the more scientific method of instruction would from its quasi-impersonal character, be less difficult for a father to employ than the other, which invariably leads him onto sacred ground. But in practice this would not be found to be the case. The crux of the question is the personal application of the facts presented; and if that application is shirked the value of the lessons will be in many cases lost; the boy will learn some interesting botanical laws, but he will not connect them with human beings until he is a good deal older, and by that time the mischief will have been done. It is true a boy of scientific propensities and precocious reasoning powers will connect the two subjects pretty readily at an early age—say, fourteen—but something more is required than simply correlation with other facts. Knowledge by itself may suggest counsels of prudence, but it has long ago been discovered by schoolmasters that prudential warnings by themselves are quite impotent against an imperious appetite of any kind. And if a father, desirous of beginning with the easier part of the subject, adopts the botanical illustrations in order to lead up to a personal appeal, he will find that his difficulty, when he comes to the point, has been very slightly diminished by the scientific preamble. Perhaps it may be thought that too much account is here taken of the shyness of a parent with his own son. Nevertheless it is really incontestable that this national characteristic has always been the grand obstacle to the giving of salutary instruction of this sort to the young.

The real answer to the question between the two methods is that they ought to be combined, and that by far the greater stress should be laid on the personal appeal, which certainly ought to precede any formal scientific teaching about the propagation of life. It may reasonably be asserted that the wholesome impressions of childhood, which consciously and vividly last through life, are those made by one or both of these influences. And we want both.

The truth of these statements, however, will be easier to gauge if I now proceed to give more in detail the nature of the teaching which seems to be required.

At some time between eight and eleven years of age, in any case before a child leaves home, the fact of maternity should be explained. Probably he will know that as regards domestic animals there is some kind of law of offspring being born from the mother's body. In any case it is very easy to remind him of scattered facts, either within his cognizance or on the confines of it, which enable him to understand that this is a universal law. For a year or two in most cases, not in all, he will have been realizing that there is some mystery about the matter, and that his nurse and parents have ceased to put off his curiosity with tales of fairies, etc. So he is eager and fully prepared to hear that there is an explanation; and as far as the maternal side of the subject is concerned it should be simply stated, with emphasis laid on the suffering involved to his mother, and the wonderful fact given as a reason why the mother so dearly loves her son. And it would be well to go farther and indicate the period of gestation, and explain the phrase in the Litany and some well-known passages in the Bible. It is a perfectly simple matter, and beyond all doubt a supremely natural process of instructing, and, as far as I know, never fails of its reward, to wit, a closer link of union between mother and child, and an implanting of a deep reverence in the child's mind for the greatest of all natural laws and for the parental relation.

But when puberty comes on, the problem changes. We may assume that the early teaching has been effectual in saving the boy from evil imaginations as well as from sins of word and deed: and yet when the passions begin to be roused by bodily growth it is quite certain that fresh guidance will be needed. To begin with, some years may have passed and the effect of the preliminary teaching may partly be worn away. So a very special supplementary warning is required, which, if possible, should be given by the father, and should take the form of an appeal to the boy's consciousness of germinating manhood; every effort being made, as in the previous talk, to inspire him with the feeling of the dignity of human life and of the laws of life. Not only is this a bracing and a wholesome tone to adopt, but it is so natural as to be almost easy, certainly as compared with the tone of mere warning, which by itself is full of the dangers of suggestion.

It is of great importance that the lad be not depressed or frightened. Everything possible should be said and done to give him belief in himself and in his Maker. Nothing but harm comes of convincing a boy that he is a failure, and we do not want a lot of young Englishmen to be going about apologizing for their own existence. So the first thing to do is to explain the meaning of temptation—as in many cases God's method of training the character to be strong—and then to show how the young man preparing himself for life must know how to go forth to meet his boyish trials like

a soldier advancing to battle, almost rejoicing that his enemy is strong because he feels sure that he can overcome him. Thus when he feels the approach of his foe he can recognize the call to use the strength within him that it may grow by conflict and victory: because he perceives that now is the moment when he is going to be further equipped for the welfare of life, and on it perhaps depends the question whether he will grow into a warrior or into a slave. He should be told that his will which he thinks weak is really quite strong enough for any number of trials, if only he knows their meaning and is not frightened or fascinated by them.

Little need be said in the way of deterrent. If a father has once obtained an avowal of the fact there is little doubt that in most cases the shame of it is felt and a few grave words about the sully of the thoughts and of the heart are all that is necessary, unless there is reason to believe that a certain callousness exists which must at all costs be broken through. Even then I doubt the wisdom of saying much about physical ill effects, as to which considerable divergence of opinion exists among doctors. The exhortations should be of such a kind as to make the boy see the meaning of the trial, and the paramount importance not so much of being victorious as of being ever hopeful, persevering, and resolute to do exactly what he is told by way of safeguard; and above all to put away the unclean thing from his thoughts and forget any failure that may occur as speedily as possible.

Confirmation is of course the time when schoolmasters get to learn something of the graver side of boy life, and the reason why it is so precious to them is that it allows them to rely on sound and bracing thoughts instead of barren denunciation and abortive appeals to the will, which the boy knows perfectly well is too weak for the work it has to do.

Indeed there is something awe-inspiring in the innocent readiness of little children to learn the explanation of by far the greatest fact within the horizon of their minds. The way they receive it, with native reverence, truthfulness of understanding, and guileless delicacy, is nothing short of a revelation of the never ceasing bounty of Nature, who endows successive generations of children with this instinctive ear for the deep harmonies of her laws. People sometimes speak of the indescribable beauty of children's innocence, and insist that there is nothing which calls for more constant thanksgiving than their influence on mankind. But I will venture to say that no one quite knows what it is who has foregone the privilege of being the first to set before them the true meaning of life and birth and the mystery of their own being.

By way of a tentative suggestion I would point out that there seems to be a natural division of labor between the two parents. Suppose the

mother takes upon herself to lay the foundation of the knowledge at about eight or nine years of age; there remains a necessary caution to be given to boys towards the time of puberty, which, properly speaking, ought to be somewhat medical in character, and this would seem to be the part either of the father or some trustworthy doctor. In a fairly large number of cases, after the early teaching, a very slight hint would be sufficient.¹³

Among educators the name of President G. Stanley Hall carries deserved weight, and for the suggestions he makes and the authority of their author, we print here certain relevant paragraphs applying to boys as well as to later adolescence:

Passing now to sexual pedagogy and regimen, the world presents probably no such opportunity to religion, the moralist, the teacher, the wise father, the doctor who is also a philosopher. There is no such state of utter plasticity, such hunger for vital knowledge, counsel, sound advice. Young men in other respects headstrong, obstinate, self-sufficient, and independent, are here guided by a hint, a veiled allusion, a chance word of wisdom. The wisest man I know in these matters and the most experienced, a physician and also a religious teacher, goes to audiences of young men at the end of the academic year, who have been unmoved by the best revivalists, who are losing power just in proportion as they neglect to know or prudishly ignore this field, and wins men by the score to both virtue and piety. I have sat at his feet and tried to learn the secret of his method. It is simple, direct, concise, and in substance this: In these overtense cases the mind must first of all be relieved of worry, and it must be explained that excessive anxiety and attention are the chief provocative of nocturnal orgasms. This is itself often a cure. Then the assurance that such experiences, varying greatly with different individuals in frequency, are normal, and that their entire absence would be ominous for sexual health, often comes as a gospel of joy to victims of ignorance, as does the knowledge that their case is common and not unique and exceptional. Personal examination by one who has seen thousands of cases and who can speak with an authority that commands confidence in most cases, reveals none of the grave or even mild ailments that had grown to such alarming proportions in the rank soil of youthful fancy. Diversion to objective interests or tasks that are active and absorbing, confirmation of wills that are not sufficiently established against occasional lapses by showing how fundamental sexual health and its irradiation are for domestic happiness, for a religious life and altruism, a few hygienic precepts concerning sleep, food, pure air, bathing,

¹³ E. Lyttleton, head-master of Eton College, *Training of the Young in Laws of Sex*, p. 68.

exercises, and regularity, and perhaps a little carefully selected biological reading, and in many, if not most cases, a wondrous change is wrought. Some describe their experience as having a great burden rolled off, a strain or chain removed; they seem to walk on air, feel themselves men again, their strength renewed, look back with self-pity upon their former folly, etc.

Ethical culture alone is very inadequate, and preaching or evangelistic work that ignores this evil is unsuccessful. Religion best meets these needs because it deals, if true, with what most affects the life of the young and what is the tap-root of so much that is best in them. Youth takes to religion at this age as its natural element. True conversion is as normal as the blossoming of a flower. The superiority of Christianity is that its corner-stone is love, and that it meets the needs of this most critical period of life as nothing else does. It is a synonym of maturity in altruism, and a religion that neglects this corner-stone, that is not helpful in this crisis, that is not entered upon now inevitably, is wanting. He is a poor psychologist of religion and a worse Christian teacher who, whether from ignorance or prudery, ignores or denies all this, or leaves the young to get on as best they may. Sex is a great psychic power which should be utilized for religion, which would be an inconceivably different thing without it, and one of the chief functions of the latter in the world is to normalize the former. Error blights the very roots of piety in the heart, atrophies the home-making faculties, and kills enthusiasm and altruism. Their curves of ascent and decline rise and fall together both in age and in normality, and very many church communicants are not what they would be but for some psycho-physical handicap of this nature. But *ubi virus, ibi virtus*. God and nature are benign, and recuperative agencies, in these years so supercharged with vitality, in cases that seem desperate, often act *cito, certe et jucunde*. The very excess of the physiological fecundating power in man which caused man's fall is so abounding that it may work his cure. Grave psychic discrasias due to passion states generally seem to be completely outgrown, and even gonorrhea and its sometimes persistent sequel, gleet, cannot usually long withstand nature's *vis reparatoria* if reinforced by a hygienic habit of life.

That this department of sexual hygiene has been almost criminally neglected, none can doubt. Family physicians are almost never consulted by boys, and the great majority of doctors know almost nothing about the whole subject save the standard modes of treating a few specific diseases with overt symptoms; while clergymen, who should be spiritual and moral guides, know perhaps still less, and have often come to regard as superior ethical purity and refinement the sloth and cowardice that dreads to grap-

ple with a repulsive and festering moral sore. While legislation is sadly needed for the protection of youth, instruction is no less imperative if the springs of heredity are to be kept pure. The blame rests mainly with the false, and, I believe, morbid modesty so common in this country in all that pertains to sex. At Williams College, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and Clark, I have made it a duty in my departmental teaching to speak very briefly but plainly to young men under my instruction, personally if I deemed it wise, and often, though here only in general terms, before student bodies, and I believe I have nowhere done more good, but it is a painful duty. It requires tact and some degree of hard and strenuous common-sense rather than technical knowledge. . . .

Some think, at least for girls, all that is needed can be taught by means of flowers and their fertilization, and that mature years will bring insight enough to apply it all to human life. Others would demonstrate on the cadaver so that in the presence of death knowledge may be given without passion. This I once saw in Paris, but cannot commend for general use. An evil of such dimensions will be cured by no newly discovered method or specific, but only by courageous application for generations of the many means already known for strengthening the physical and moral nature. Some would merely give simple, direct, and honest answers to honest questions, being careful to go no farther than satisfy so much curiosity as had been aroused. Others would begin at eight or ten, before passion had awakened, and with no reserve tell everything by charts about the origin of life. Others would make it all mystic and symbolic, and some would leave all to nature or accidental sources of information. It seems clear and certain that in our modern life something should be taught, and that betimes. This should, I believe, be chiefly personal, and by fathers to sons and by mothers to daughters. It should be concise and plain, yet with all needed tact and delicacy in well-chosen words. It should be very brief, and not spun out like the well-meant and goody books on the subject that should be boiled down to about one-fiftieth their size and cost. This probably ought to be the most inspiring of all topics to teach, as to the truly pure in heart it is the most beautiful of all. In twilight, before the open fire, in the morning, in some hour of farewell, on a birthday, or any opportune confidential time, this most sacred topic could be rescued from evil or be given abiding, good associations. The self-knowledge imparted that makes for health is perhaps almost the culminating function and duty of parenthood. It may be that in the future this kind of initiation will again become an art, and experts will tell us with more confidence how to do our duty to the manifold exigencies, types, and stages of youth, and instead of feeling baffled and

defeated, we shall see that this age and theme is the supreme opening for the highest pedagogy to do its best and most transforming work, as well as being the greatest of all opportunities for the teacher of religion.¹⁴

A physician, who does not betray his identity, elaborates in a pamphlet an address he gave at the fifty-ninth session of the American Medical Association¹⁵ which was heartily approved by eight well-known practitioners who discussed it. It was in the form of an address to adolescent boys. He says:

If a boy friend boasts to you of his sexual experience with girls, drop acquaintance with that boy at once; he is trying to corrupt your mind by lying to you. If a boy in an unguarded moment tries to entice you to masturbatic experiments, he insults you. Strike him at once and beat him as long as you can stand, etc. Forgive him in your mind, but never speak to him again. If he is the best fighter and beats you, take it as in a good cause. If a man scoundrel suggests indecent things, slug him with a stick or a stone or anything else at hand. Give him a scar that all may see, and if you are arrested, tell the judge all and he will approve your act, even if it is not lawful. If a villain shows you a filthy book or picture, snatch it and give it to the first policeman you meet and help him to find the wretch. If a vile woman invites you, and perhaps tells a plausible story of her downfall you cannot strike her, but think of a glittering poisonous snake. She is a degenerate and probably diseased, and even a touch may poison you and your children.

He explains briefly the working of gonotoxin, when it begins and when it reaches heart, kidneys, joints, eyes, brain, etc., describes buboes and chancre, and explains the horrors of the latter, warns against all doctors who advertise, and tells of their methods.

SECTION 3. *Puberty and early adolescence—girls.*—Here again, though in less degree, the school has a duty to perform. Only by knowledge of herself and of her danger can a girl protect her health and her virtue from the perils which constantly beset the unwary and the ignorant. Not much need be said, but that little is vital and may be brought in naturally in connection with instruction in personal hygiene and morality. If public opinion is perverse and if parents will not permit suitable oral instruction by

¹⁴ G. Stanley Hall, *The Psychology of Adolescence*, Vol. I, pp. 463, 464.

¹⁵ *The Boys' Venereal Peril*, Chicago, 1903, p. 35. See also Harvard monograph, *The Venereal Peril*; and Fournier's *Address to Sons on Attaining Their Eighteenth Year*.

women teachers, then public opinion must be changed by education, and the teaching profession has the first responsibility.

In our cities girls in the wage-earners' families, on the average, remain in school somewhat longer than the boys; but multitudes of them leave school before the high-school age and must be helped, if ever, at puberty. That so many go astray through sheer ignorance is not so wonderful as that so few are ruined. It is pitiful to watch the life of shop and factory girls of fourteen and beyond who are thrown in contact with moral perils of which neither family, church, nor school has given them warning.

A very excellent example of a lecture for girls is that of Dr. A. Heidenhain.¹⁶ This physician invited the mothers of girls in the public schools of working people to bring their daughters for scientific instruction in their nature and calling just at the time they were leaving school at about the fourteenth year of age. The lecture is illustrated by drawings of the female organs of reproduction, and the author tells in simple, honest words, as if each child was his own and had come to him for professional counsel, the meaning of reproduction, the development of the egg, the act of birth, the supply of breast milk, the duty of mother to child. If a girl suffers or sins after this lecture it is not from ignorance of the most vital facts.

Dr. Helen C. Putnam was asked to write counsels for mothers in teaching their young daughters. She replied: "I cannot. . . . It is an unnatural cramming, an artificiality. . . . Everything for the purpose you indicate that I have ever read in periodicals and pamphlets offended me. Regular education is the only reasonable, effective, safe method. Advise mothers to form a class for study under a *competent scientist*." This advice comes from a gifted woman physician. But is there not something to be said for a different view? How long before there will be enough "*competent scientists*" to instruct the millions of mothers by oral lessons? Meanwhile—what?

Dr. Alfred Fournier in his little book, *Pour nos filles*, p. 28, says:

You may well assert, ladies, that the moral law alone is able to accomplish something against this peril, and that the physicians would be rein-

¹⁶ *Sexuelle Belehrung der aus der Volksschule entlassenen Mädchen*, Leipzig, 1907, J. A. Barth.

forced, well reinforced in their crusade, if they had with them the educators of youth. They have the power to raise the moral level of future generations. In fact, the social question is confounded here as always and everywhere with the moral question."

Dr. Fournier in writing his booklet for our daughters addresses it to their mothers when these shall consider that the counsels he gives are necessary; he addresses it particularly to the mothers of young working girls and says:

These are counsels that a mother and still more a father may experience some embarrassment in giving to a daughter, and these are counsels which a physician alone has ability to formulate, but which he is not at liberty to address to a young girl without the consent of her family. Therefore, mothers of families, and above all mothers of young working girls, read them these pages, and if, as we hope, you find them prepared for instruction and guidance against the many dangers which menace them, permit them to read this little work, which has no other purpose than to safeguard their interests.

The statement of Judge Julian W. Mack, whose distinguished services in one of the largest juvenile courts give his every word great weight, is suggestive to parents and teachers, both in respect to the necessity for the instruction of girls and the best methods of giving such instruction. It was printed in the *Ladies' Home Journal*, May, 1908.¹⁸

During a three-years' experience as judge of the Juvenile Court in Cook County there came before me several hundred cases of girls, ranging in age from seven to eighteen years, every one of whom had made a misstep. Their pitiful stories have impressed upon me the vital importance of two fundamental duties that fathers and mothers owe to their children:

First, that parents should at all times, from earliest childhood, have that priceless possession, the genuine confidence of their child: a confidence which will cause the child not merely to obey, but also to trust and to feel implicitly that the parent is at all times and under all circumstances the best friend, the most constant companion, and the wisest and most willing adviser.

Second, that, in order to earn and to deserve this confidence, parents must be frank in responding to the natural inquiries of their child; yea, more, they must divine the unspoken question at the right time, and answer

¹⁷ Cf. Dr. H. A. Kelly, *Medical Gynecology*, chap. ii.

¹⁸ Cf. P. Zeuner, M.D., "The Prevention of Venereal Disease through Education," *Lancet-Clinic*, December 14, 1907, p. 573.

it clearly and in a manner that will invite further questions as the child develops into young womanhood.

I know the difficulties involved in this, even for the more intelligent and educated parents. But I know only too well that too many parents live in a fools' paradise of belief that their silence spells ignorance and innocence on the part of the children.

It cannot be too emphatically repeated that every child mingling with other children, whether in private or in public schools, is going to learn much even at the age of ten, and, in circles in which children are not carefully guarded, even as early as seven. The words picked up, the thoughts awakened, arouse the inquiring mind. If the silent inquiry be felt and responded to by the parents a relation is established which, developed by mutual confidences, throws a protecting mantle over the little one that in many cases will guard her for life. If the spoken or unspoken query be avoided or checked the first barrier is raised, which, followed by the conventional story, easily and quickly discovered to be untrue, destroys the child's faith in her mother. This may close her lips for all time and turn her to those who are always within reach and are only too ready to initiate her not only into a complete knowledge of but also into an experiment with the mysteries of life.

I do not for a moment assert that all girls make missteps because of this ignorance of the facts of life. Many of mature age realize not only the moral wrong but some of the physical consequences as well. Even they, however, are generally ignorant of the results of disease that too often follow the wrong step and of its permanent and terrible consequences.

The literature that the social hygiene societies are now spreading is to the average girl, as it is to the average parent, a sealed book. The girl who has enjoyed the confidence of her parents from childhood may be spared much of this knowledge, but to those girls who have not been strengthened by this complete mutual trust with the parent even these sad stories must be told.

Whenever a number of school children are in court for these wrongs one leader among the girls has invariably been found responsible for spreading the trouble. The boys instinctively recognize the difference in girls and know which are possible victims and which are not. From one of the schools located in an excellent region of Chicago came a girl of seventeen years of age. Her parents were an old couple, her sister a trained nurse, and her brother an excellent business man. This seventeen-year-old girl was the baby of the family and in their eyes an innocent child, the object of universal love. The family never suspected that instead of visiting one of her girl schoolmates after supper, as she said she did, she

was keeping an appointment with some of the neighborhood boys. Her influence led at least three others girls of from twelve to fifteen to follow in her footsteps. Two of her intimate friends were twins of the age of fifteen, and one took the keenest pleasure in these clandestine meetings. The other twin knew practically nothing about them, as not only the boys, but even the girls, recognized her innate modesty and refrained from mentioning them in her presence. The boys told me that they would be ashamed and afraid to make an indelicate suggestion in her presence, while they hesitated at nothing in the presence of the other twin and her companions.

None of these girls had the slightest knowledge of the physical consequences of their acts. They all realized, of course, that they were disobeying and deceiving their parents and otherwise doing wrong, but not one of them had ever been told anything about the origin of human life. As to whether this knowledge would have protected them or not I cannot be sure, but I believe, from my conversations with them and with their parents, that it would have done so. The incident became generally known in the school and caused a complete awakening of the parents in that section of the city to a realization of their obligations. The school is located at the border line between a section occupied by fairly well-to-do people and a section occupied by the poorer classes. Every one of the boys and girls involved in this trouble came from the well-to-do class.

In another case some half a dozen boys and half a dozen girls between the ages of ten and thirteen were involved. The leader here, again, was a girl of eleven years. She was one of the seven or eight children of a widow. This girl had never received the slightest instruction in these matters—in fact, she was the victim of parental neglect to such an extent that it became necessary to take her away from home.

In a small suburb of Chicago half a dozen high-school girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age made a regular practice of receiving a company of their male fellow-students at their respective homes on Thursday afternoons when the mothers were away attending their club meetings. These boys and girls were all of the so-called better classes and the mothers were intelligent women. In their club affairs these women had displayed an active interest in communal welfare, but they had forgotten to gain the full confidence of their daughters: not one of these girls had ever been told anything of the mystery of life, or understood the physical consequences of her act.

A group of seven little girls, from nine to twelve years of age, were the victims of a gray-haired scoundrel, all led on by a child of twelve, the first victim, who persuaded the others to follow her example. Candy and a few pennies were sufficient inducement in this case.

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Will the
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club?

In another case, a group of half a dozen girls of fourteen and fifteen years of age made it a custom, after church on Sunday morning, to visit a man who gave them ice cream and played music for them, and the parents thought that they were going for a walk!

'One little girl of nine years of age, who was kept in ignorance of these things by her parents, was the victim of more than a dozen boys, ranging in age from ten to sixteen. She was a beautiful, innocent child.

A widowed mother with two beautiful daughters of fifteen and seventeen made no attempt to instruct either of them. She was a weak, pleasure-loving woman, and the natural results followed. Both girls were faithful attendants at Sunday school and church, but were easy victims of their school companions. The younger girl was subsequently responsible for leading three of her girl Sunday-school mates into like adventures.

A mother disregarded some rumors that came to her about her eleven-year-old daughter. She pooh-poohed them, declaring that she knew her child, and that the child's "innocence" and ignorance were absolute protection to her. The mother's discovery of her mistake was something heart-breaking to witness.

Now what is the lesson to be derived from these and many like experiences? As I said before, one can never be sure that knowledge of the physical consequences will be complete protection to a girl. But that knowledge she should possess, and possess early as a first covering. While knowledge alone, without character, will never save, the fear of consequences will oftentimes brace up a weak girl to resist to the uttermost.

Some wise teachers have been able to impart much valuable information in the regular course in physiology and hygiene to high-school classes as a normal and natural part of the course without any undue emphasis. The task, however, is an extremely delicate one, and, except in the hands of the wisest and most experienced, is apt to be full of danger.

Instruction of this kind, particularly to those under the high-school age, must be individual; it cannot therefore be given by the already overburdened public-school teacher.

The greatest care must be exercised in imparting such knowledge. Many parents are unequal to the task and should call to their aid the wise family physician. Moreover, as the children whose parents cannot or will not instruct them or cause them to be instructed by the physician are a source of danger to the children of others; as children cannot be raised in hot-houses nor kept from contact with others—sooner or later most of them will go to school, public or private; as one vicious child will influence many companions, the importance of mothers' associations in connection with every school and every grade of the school cannot be too strongly urged.

Here can be gathered those responsible for the children's associates; here a wise parent can help the ignorant and thus build up a double barrier about her own child

The intelligent parents owe a double duty: they owe a duty to their own children and to other children, and the duty to the other children is not only from a humanitarian standpoint, to fill the place of the unworthy or ignorant parent, but indeed from the selfish standpoint: to protect their own children. Even the best and wisest mothers frequently blunder. The carefully-trained and only child of a most excellent woman created a great sensation in a select school in a Western city by immediately confiding all that she had learned at home to her schoolmates, male and female, with a good many embellishments.

An innate or inbred modesty not only makes a girl in every way lovely, but it is also her greatest shield: her sole completely reliable protection. A girl must be taught that to give even the tip of a finger to a boy is wrong; that she will awaken in him a desire which some boys at least will lose no opportunity to satisfy; but, further, she should be told why, and what it means.

Modesty and ignorance have too long been thought to be synonymous. Knowledge of the dangers may in itself check a growing forwardness; it cannot but strengthen and doubly shield those who are of pure thought.

Most girls of sixteen and upward do not, in my judgment, go wrong because of any ignorance of the consequences. They are led away by the excitement of the moment and are willing to take the risk. A girl who has been working all day in a factory or a store comes home at night worn out, only to find more work in assisting her mother in taking care of the little ones; her home is in the dismal regions of the city where the streets are very dirty, the lights dim, the air foul, and all the surroundings unattractive. She wants some of the happiness and brightness, the joy that is the birthright of every young girl, and she goes out in search of it. If the Settlements are near she will go to them and find in the classes and the clubs, the music and the dance, a happiness that she seeks. If the municipalities provide recreation centers, such as are afforded in the South Park system of Chicago, she will be attracted there, and under decent auspices she will find in the gymnasium, or the library, or the club-room, or the dance, the opportunity that she seeks.

But if these be not given, then, as she wanders along the streets she will be attracted where the lights are brightest and the sounds are gayest; to her untrained eye and ear brilliancy spells beauty. She seeks the companionship of the opposite sex: the saloon dance-hall provides not only this, but also the dance that she craves.

Is this poor girl to blame? Society itself, not fully awakened to its obligation, is responsible. To condemn and to destroy the bad is not enough: it must be replaced by the positive good: a living wage to the working-girl; a real preparation for life, including an industrial education and the knowledge of herself, for the schoolgirl; and the opportunities for healthful and pleasurable recreation, under decent influences and auspices, for everyone.¹⁹

SECTION 4. *High-school years and apprentices.*—The high school already renders a valuable service in relation to the habits and character of youth, and, so far as this special investigation is concerned, the results are generally very encouraging. There is abundant reason for believing that, on the whole, the American high-school girl is generally fully equipped to protect herself and determined to do so; and that the high-school boy in America treats girls and women with respect. Outdoor sports and industrial training, where these are wisely and generously provided, help to give outlet to energy, wholesome occupation to the mind, and freedom from irritation of the nervous system caused by too prolonged desk work. The rumors kept afloat by enemies of the public schools that they are centers of vice cannot be traced to any reliable source, and have very slight justification in the rare instances of scandal which are inevitable in the present state of human nature. Long and intimate acquaintance with town and city high schools, together with direct inquiry with well-informed persons in all parts of the Union, is the basis of this somewhat optimistic opinion.

The secret fraternities of high-school boys and girls, with their club houses inaccessible to the supervision of teachers and parents, are believed by school authorities to be a moral pest, and deserving of abolition. At the same time high-school authorities are unwise to assume a merely negative attitude; they are morally bound to furnish a substitute in gymnasium, playgrounds, sports, winter games, tool practice, sociable and literary and artistic entertainments, which will be even more attractive than the questionable secret resorts of the fraternity houses. The assemblies of little cliques of pupils are not so suitable to our democratic public schools

¹⁹ For an excellent discussion see Mme. Schmid-Jager, *De l'éducation de nos filles*, Lausanne, 1904.

as assemblies open, with the very best means of recreation and culture, to all members of the school. Very often the finest artistic talent belongs to those pupils who are too poor to pay the dues in a fraternity or private club.

The better modern high schools furnish the scientific foundation for knowledge of the sexual nature through their instruction in biology, botany, zoölogy, physiology, hygiene, and a sound physical culture to fortify the moral nature in its gymnastic and other exercises. We here insert statements by competent persons illustrating good methods.

Independently of the above question, "At what ages shall public schools instruct in the several details," whose answer further experimentation by teachers must settle, is the importance of a clear conception of the information to which youth is entitled for its own protection and the good of society. Two basic principles are: *Teach no evil*, and *Teach in time to preserve physical and moral well-being*. Every boy and girl has a claim to knowledge: (1) of the functions and hygiene of the chief organs of the body, including the reproductive system; (2) of the meaning of sex, marriage, home-making; of the sacredness of the prenatal life, the influences of heredity, and the consequent duty of right living even when young; of the responsibilities of parenthood. Mention has already been made of certain schools' demonstration of the wholesomeness, truthfulness, and practicability of the biologic method in preference to merely moral statements for impressing this knowledge, beginning in very early years; (3) that handling the organs of reproduction, except as necessary for cleanliness, injures sometimes health, and always mind, character, sense of honor, causing greater mental and moral harm as one grows older . . . ; (4) of the most prevalent contagious diseases, such as tuberculosis, syphilis, gonorrhea; their danger to every person as indicated by statistics of wide prevalence; their many methods of communication; including the fact that syphilis and gonorrhea exist almost universally among those leading immoral lives, a reason for avoiding such men and women as one avoids those with diphtheria, and smallpox; that they are more difficult to cure than any other contagious disease and that their harm is more far reaching; (5) of the normal phenomena of adolescence; the physiologic influence on health, mind and morals of clean thoughts, reading, conversation, entertainments, companions; the value of occupation and physical exercise in keeping thoughts and habits and health good; the avoidance of tobacco, alcoholic drinks (including patent medicines, many containing alcohol), the advertisements of "doctors" and remedies" found in newspapers, magazines, etc.

Every girl has a claim to instruction concerning the hygiene of menstruation, the function and sacredness of motherhood, and care of infants.

Every boy has a claim to instruction concerning the value of conscience and avoidance of ignorant and evil advisers in this matter; the sacredness of fatherhood, and the duty of protecting all girls and women from evil as he would his sister or his mother.²⁰

And further:

1. The physiology and hygiene of sex when successfully taught is an essential part of the course where it logically belongs. It must not be interjected.

2. Attention is specially given to preparing the pupils mind for human considerations by a carefully developed study of plant and animal phenomena.

3. The teachers have made special study of biologic subjects; and there are "special" or "departmental teachers" for pupils over ten years of age.

4. Beginning with cell reproduction, the course traces the evolution of sex along with other functions; it is not given undue prominence.

5. Pupils—boys and girls—follow this systematic course with interest, frankness, clean-mindedness, and evident benefit.

6. It has developed naturally, wholesomely, and so unconsciously that no comments and criticisms have been aroused among either parents or school authorities.

7. The trend of these special instructors is to give it at and just before puberty, i. e., from eleven to fifteen years of age.

The condition of public opinion in a town or city will determine what can be taught and the method of presentation.

In some places instruction must be given in classes for boys and girls separately; in others they are taught together; so far as the biological facts are concerned, without criticism of parents.

In certain places the more specific instruction may be given outside school hours, with the permission of school authorities and parents, when there is opposition to public instruction.

Night schools.—The urban night schools have already aided many immigrants to acquire our language, and enabled youth and adults to make up for former neglect or misfortune in relation to the elements of knowledge. These night schools furnish an opportunity for giving such knowledge of hygiene as is necessary for per-

²⁰ From Educational Pamphlet No. 2, *Instruction in the Physiology and Hygiene of Sex*, Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

sonal care of health and for the care of infants and the training of children and youth. The material and method of formal instruction in matters of sex have elsewhere been indicated.

Continuation schools.—We greet with satisfaction the recent movement to establish and maintain schools for youth, apprentices in trades, and employers of mercantile establishments. Factories and department stores are only to a limited extent open for sexual instruction of employees. Women's clubs and societies of social hygiene, in their attempts to gather the employees for this purpose have often met with insurmountable obstacles: the unwillingness of employers to give up the time of the wage-earners; the antagonism of the young people and of their parents; the resentment felt at the suggestion that they stand in any need of warning, and other difficulties. In the continuation schools there is a better opportunity of giving familiar lectures on "social hygiene" to young people exposed to extreme temptation and having little opportunity of learning what they most need to know. Women physicians can render a very great service to girls and young women in connection with the classes in domestic science, house-keeping arts, etc.

SECTION 5. *College years—young men.*—What would a father write to a son beginning college life? We cite a medical answer. He speaks of self-abuse as a passing error of early puberty, not so evil as represented by quacks, yet a habit to be cured as soon as possible.

The great temptation which you are sure to encounter is the foolish assertion that sexual congress is necessary for health—a most pernicious doctrine carefully kept alive by those who live upon the trade of prostitution either directly or indirectly. It is the opposite of the truth, for we know that the whole sexual apparatus, including all the brain and nerve centers involved, will remain normal permanently without intercourse. Moreover, it is known that hard work and clean reading repress passions, while idleness, unclean literature, and luxurious dramas excite them to an abnormal degree.

The prostitute herself lives in that life only nine years and one investigator says but five. Some say she dies of alcoholism, but the more common opinion is that the cause is gonorrhea. Most of them are degenerates—the female equivalent of the male criminal. Indeed they are mostly criminals themselves, of poor health, poor physique, neurasthenic, unable to

work, unable to resist the ravages of any disease, and consequently are easy victims of this one. In addition, they are generally of feeble intelligence uneducated, and unfit for civilization—the rejects—and it is degrading even to meet them. . . .

Live a clean, outdoor life, as active as circumstances permit, eat good food with sufficient animal ingredients, sleep at least nine hours a day—and your body will behave itself in every part. Don't worry over imaginary conditions; and believe me that sexual continence is normal. Above all, take my word for it, that the dreadful quack literature on sexual matters is mostly false, and is prepared by criminals for swindling purposes solely. Certain newspapers are public enemies in that they yearly absorb millions of dollars for advertising the sexual swindlers, and most of the money is filched from the pockets of mere boys.

Whenever a companion says he believes in a short life and a merry one, put him down as a fool and leave the room. The only good such people do is to enrich the undertakers. Your affectionate DAD.²¹

All the points made in this excerpt are urged in an address to the students of the University of Pennsylvania by Robert N. Willson, M.D., who for over three years had acted as one of the physicians to the students of that great institution. His monograph is entitled *The Social Evil in University Life*, published by the Vir Publishing Company, Philadelphia. The book of Dr. W. S. Hall on *Reproduction and Sexual Hygiene* has special value for young men entering college, and the author has been very successful in treating this subject before audiences of young men in colleges.

VI. TRAINING OF TEACHERS

We have now offered evidence for the conclusion that the public schools cannot altogether escape responsibility for the education of children and youth in matters of the sexual life, and we have endeavored to show precisely the extent and limitations of this responsibility. It may be an open question whether a particular teacher ought to give any instruction whatever on the subject, even by casual allusion; but there is no room for reasonable doubt that every teacher should know the essential facts relating to this sphere of moral activity. The teacher needs this knowledge for personal guidance and safety, and also in order to understand the

²¹ "The Venereal Peril, a Letter from a Physician to His Son in College," *American Medicine*, Vol. I, No. 4, N. S., July, 1906, pp. 186-90.

difficulties, temptations, fears, hopes, dangers, and duties of the pupils. Only when a teacher knows the entire situation can he most wisely help children and youth by general hygiene, diversion of interests, outdoor sport, manual exercises, gymnastics, and also by elevation of ideals in the teaching of history, literature, and civics.

It seems clear that it is the duty of the state and of city school authorities to provide lectures and laboratory instruction for those teachers who have come to recognize the need. Nature-study, so far as it is genuinely scientific and not aesthetic, is simply a method of teaching physics, chemistry, botany, zoölogy, and biology; and it would seem that by means of courses in these sciences is the proper preparation for giving sound instruction in these fields to be applied. The teachers of public schools may be somewhat better fitted for their tasks, however interpreted, by lectures from physicians. Attendance on such lectures, when there is objection, should be voluntary and not required.

Forel²² urges the importance of understanding the nature and origin of inherited abnormalities (sadism, homo-sexuality, etc.). Sometimes a teacher may treat these rare and monstrous cases as if they were normal and could be educated out of their perversions. But since their disorder arises from a constitutional, innate, and inherited condition, the process of education does not reach the origin of the difficulty. All that a teacher can do is to discover the abnormal person and insist upon removal to an institution where he or she can have special treatment and not corrupt normal children and youth. This is work for physicians, not for teachers.

VII. PREPARATION OF YOUNG PARENTS FOR THEIR DUTIES

It is very generally agreed that, so far as possible, parents should instruct, warn, and train their own children in all matters of conduct, and, particularly, in relation to sexual life. But parents cannot know what to teach and how to train without first being taught. Under present conventional conditions no systematic arrangements are made to prepare parents for this part of their duty; it is neglected most of all. While the children and youth are growing up the whole matter is rigorously excluded by universal

²² *Die sexuelle Frage*, p. 526.

consent from family and school and Sunday-school instruction; the books on physiology and hygiene avoid the whole matter, as if there were no reproductive life, no sexual facts. The minister in his pulpit and pastoral ministrations is compelled by social conventions to touch the matter only in a very vague way, absolutely without fundamental and scientific information. The knowledge that is gained usually comes from ignorant, incompetent, and otherwise unfit persons, and in a way to surround the whole subject with a poisonous atmosphere. If the teaching profession, whose social function it is to prepare people for life, makes no provision for this vital matter, how are the parents to perform their duty? Who will teach them when the entire teaching profession avoids this task? The physicians have the knowledge but they are not consulted except in the crisis of pain, disease, serious perversion, and then the instruction comes too late, and it is out of all relation to the normal development of childhood and youth.

Herbert Spencer, in his essays on "Education," ridicules the folly of men who are enthusiastic students of the best methods of raising prize pigs, but consider the proper rearing of children beneath their manly dignity. Of one gap in our scheme of education he writes with acerbity:

If by some strange chance not a vestige of us descended to the remote future save a pile of our school books or some college examination papers, we may imagine how puzzled an antiquary of the period would be on finding in them no indication that the learners were ever likely to be parents. "This must have been the curriculum for their celibates," we may fancy him concluding. "I perceive here an elaborate preparation for many things: especially for reading the books of extinct nations and of coexisting nations (from which indeed it seems clear that these people had very little worth reading in their own tongue); but I find no reference whatever to the bringing up of children. They could not have been so absurd as to omit all training for this gravest of responsibilities. Evidently, then, this was the school course of one of their monastic orders."

But if this antiquarian should examine the textbooks on physiology and hygiene he would search in vain for any hint of the existence of that part of the human system on which the perpetuation of the human race depends, or for any guidance of youth in respect to the perils of the reproductive organs or their hygiene.

We must at this point give at least brief attention to the duty of the teaching profession in relation to this sacred task of parenthood.

The medical profession possesses the expert knowledge required, and its members are coming to recognize their obligation. But the present discussion is for educators rather than for physicians. To correct many of the worst abuses of sexual impulse all who influence childhood and youth should seek, so far as possible, to reveal to the young the far-reaching social significance of this impulse and of the reproductive activity in general. The severest temptation comes when merely selfish gratification is uppermost in thought. It should not be difficult to make clear to children and youth that the sexual motives find their larger significance in the perpetuation of the race; that the birth and nurture of children are the normal results of union of the sexes; that family affection and spiritual enjoyments of parents and children are to be thought of principally; that enfeebled and diseased parents injure the community and the nation; that conduct in youth, before marriage, has a direct bearing on the citizenship of the future. When the minds of the young are thus irradiated with the larger and finer ideals of morality, patriotism, and religion the inhibitory power of the will is increased when temptation comes.

The more general establishment of schools in which the arts of housekeeping are taught offers an opportunity for the preparation of girls for their future duties as wives and mothers. It does not seem at all difficult to extend the instruction in such classes to include the care of the mother herself before and after the birth of infants, the care of the baby, the elements of sick nursing, etc.

The special night-school and continuation-school courses already discussed afford opportunity for teaching young men their duties as future parents and the effect of their conduct before marriage on the health, efficiency, and character of their offspring, in connection with the teaching of physical science, hygiene, civics, literature, and history.

VIII. THE RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS

The really representative leaders of the church have always stood for sexual purity. Asceticism itself has often been an extreme reaction against the baseness and cruelty of unbridled appetite.

Religion, as presented in our age, sanctions the assured teachings of science and morality. We might therefore expect the aid of the powerful associations of religious spirit in this movement to educate the public conscience and bring to it the new light which has broken forth from the revelations of the medical profession. Numerous evidences indicate that this expectation will not be disappointed. The recent organizations for social service in several denominations are already considering this theme. The brotherhoods could undertake no more fraternal or chivalrous task than to enlist under the white cross banner for the protection of innocent childhood and pure womanhood.

The church classes of young men have in some places heard the authoritative lessons of high-minded medical men with reverence and profit. The Young Men's Christian Associations have conducted investigations, provided straight, manly addresses to boys and men, and, best of all, have in their athletic, educational, and religious work successfully fortified the better nature of their members and associates. Altogether the nobler day has dawned; a higher standard has been accepted and will be enforced by all the persuasions of teachers, pastors, journalists, physicians, and good women. Deeper than all, over all, is a spirit of holiness which leaves no man without an internal monitor, and whose eternal patience broods over the struggles of humanity in its age-long toil to discover and realize the divine purpose immanent in all history.

APPENDIX

To illustrate, extend, and confirm the principles advocated in the preceding pages we add summaries of discussions by very enlightened and competent persons in this country and abroad; partly in order that the argument may not rest on the experience and reflection of one person. Some repetition is unavoidable.

DISCUSSION OF GERMAN SOCIETY ON VENEREAL DISEASES

Perhaps one of the most instructive discussions in this department of education was that called out by a congress of the German Society for Fighting Venereal Diseases; and we cite the principal conclusions of the volume of proceedings. At the close of the congress one of the great medical specialists said:

I am glad to note the high degree of unanimity of this congress in respect to the question of sexual pedagogics and education, crowned with the conviction that the education of our youth, in order to lead to a sound sexual life, must, much more strongly than hitherto, emphasize strengthening of the body, the improvement of character and training of the will, the exaltation of the soul's life, and the inspiration of the spirit with higher values. That we have here to do with great and comprehensive problems of education, is clear to us all, but it will need more than another generation in order to translate into reality what sweeps before the vision of us all as the task of such an education.

Even in respect to sexual instruction in a narrow sense complete unanimity rules so far that we hold that such an instruction is urgently needed in general, and further, that along with the parents, who unfortunately on various grounds are only prepared to undertake this instruction in small numbers, the schools must carry the burden. We would show that the doctrine of reproduction in the plant and animal world should maintain its proper place in the range of biological instruction. Difference of opinion exists only in respect to this point: Can the affairs of sexual life of man himself, and especially the sexual act, be an object of instruction?

Here is, without doubt, the most important point of the whole problem. On one side is the wish to make accessible to youth, in place of the turbid sources of knowledge, the pure sources, and on the other hand the effort to mediate this knowledge without injury to modesty. Here there is a want

of clearness and a difficulty which does not seem to me, in the proceedings of our congress, yet to be removed. On this point further work and discussion must be given to the task.

Some things appear to me, however, according to the results of our discussion, even now completely ready for expression. Thus there is the generally acknowledged necessity of good instruction and warning to youth, at and after puberty; that is, to the graduates of the secondary schools and the pupils of the continuation and trade schools, and pupils of the higher classes of the higher schools, as well as to the girls who are about to leave school. The instruction of these groups is not only ready for expression, but also ripe for carrying into effect. It will be the duty of the authorities, now that the necessity for such an instruction is shown, to provide means to embody this instruction systematically in the entire system of education, and if this is not done, it will be the duty of our society to give an example to the authorities. It is our urgent duty, and also a duty of the state to promote the sexual education of the teachers in the public schools, as in the higher schools, and, since the universities and normal schools do not provide such instruction, provisionally to fill the gap by courses for teachers. Further, by social evenings with parents, bulletins, etc., we should educate parents for their task.¹

The conclusions of this same congress in 1907, were as follows:

The German Society for Fighting Venereal Diseases, in the interest of endangered health of the people, holds that a fundamental reform in sexual pedagogics is indispensable.

In this task the home and school must participate, the home by giving to the physical training a larger place than hitherto, and furnishing to the curious child, in respect to the question of the origin of life, an answer which corresponds to the childish understanding, but which is always true, and the school, while it also helps physical and moral development, along with the purely intellectual instruction, should also communicate in the ordinary programme of study accurate knowledge in respect to the elemental facts of the sexual life of plants, animals, and human beings.

Such instruction of the growing generation given in a way adapted to the understanding, and so as to guard modesty, imperceptibly woven in with ordinary instruction, and not going too much into details, will not cause injury, but rather prepares the ground for a sound and natural idea of the sexual life. Particular instruction as to the dangers of the sexual life and warning in respect to the dangers of venereal diseases, belongs, in the main, to the years of puberty. A systematic instruction is not possi-

¹ Blaschko, *Sexualpädagogik*, pp. 274, 275.

ble, however, while the teachers and parents, themselves, are not prepared to give it.

The first demand, therefore, is for the instruction of teachers in courses for teachers and candidates for teachers' positions in seminaries and universities, and of parents by means of social evenings and bulletins. But even today, the instruction of members of the higher classes, in the higher institutions of education, in continuation and trade schools, etc., can be given by pedagogically educated physicians and hygienically educated teachers, in a programme of general hygienic instruction. It is the duty of the higher school authorities, and of each state of the nation, to fix regulations for the material of instruction in different kinds of schools and for different ages.

In the same volume are various discussions by experts. We give some of the conclusions and arguments of individual speakers:

CONCLUSIONS OF MAX ENDERLIN, HEAD TEACHER OF MANNHEIM, ON
THE SUBJECT OF THE SEXUAL QUESTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

1. In consequence of the general knowledge of evils existing in the sexual-hygienic, and sexual-ethical field, in which we have discovered most serious injuries to our population, it is recognized more and more widely that, even in the education of the rising generation, something must be done in order to check these evil conditions and to avert from our youth the dangers which spring from them in respect to physical, spiritual, and moral development.

2. Education can perform its task in this field: (a) in the direct path by instruction in respect to the facts of sexual life, and (b) indirectly by suitable measures of sexual dietetics and general education.

(a) Sexual instruction.—The traditional secrecy with which, in home and school hitherto, all sexual matters have been treated is proved to us to be a great mistake. It even appears that it is one of the principal causes of the conditions of which we have so much to complain in the sexual life. In place of this we must henceforth provide instruction. By that we understand a simple, direct, and faithful explanation of all the questions which concern the origin and development of plants and animals and human beings. Sexual information offers a task in which the family and school must share.

In the school, the handling of sexual relations for the most part belongs to nature-study. The sexual material should not be treated as something apart, but must represent a factor in the system of biological phenomena, through which the maintenance and origin and increase of life is regulated, and so must be divided up through the other courses of the years

with other botanical, zoölogical, and anthropological instruction. Information in respect to the structure of the human organs of sex and the sexual act, as well as explanation of venereal diseases are naturally to be excluded from the public school. On the other hand, pupils must distinctly and forcibly be made aware of the importance of the undisturbed development of the sexual organs. In the treatment of the ethical side of the sexual questions, religion and the general moral teaching of history can render important services. These studies can help particularly when the sexual views are to be lifted out of the swamp of impure modes of thinking.

(b) *Measures of sexual dietetics and of general education.*—With special sexual information, there must go hand in hand an awakening of a sense of responsibility in the child, in relation to himself and society, and a strengthening of self-respect by all means which are suited to produce a certain pride in his physical powers and moral purity. Important, also, is an intensified physical culture. The afternoons should be largely free for play and exercise of sports. Adequate opportunity should be given to the pupil for hardening his body, for constant exercise in the control of the impulses of the senses, and to conquest of the demands of the body, and to the early subordination of his life of impulse to support the intellectual interests. The principal task of education is in the field of will and character. In order to diminish the hours of sitting, which favors the habit of self-abuse, we recommend in part the removal of instruction to the open air, into a garden or other open place. Further, we recommend for this purpose the transformation of certain studies into experimental exercises, which permit the child not merely passively but actively to advance his knowledge. A high importance must be given to work in the crafts, since it develops a strong force of will and fills the interest of the child with technical and artistic problems which tend to diminish an excess of sexual impulses.

Artistic education has a task, particularly for natural apprehension of what is of value in the sex life. Especially should the child be immunized against impure influences by being accustomed early to the nude in art and nature. Therefore the artistic representations of the human form, as nude, in monuments, sculptures, and the like should not be concealed from the pupil in the public schools. The same is true of the pure and chaste in the literature of romantic love. For this early habituation, the coeducation of boys and girls is to be recommended. In order to secure the co-operation of the parental home with the views of the school, in the field of sexual education, the institution of parents' associations is to be recommended; and in addition, the parents may be taught by bulletins, pamphlets, popular lectures, and articles in the press.

The right to give instruction in respect to sexual matters must be legally secured to the school.

More than one hundred and thirty years ago, the great educator, Salzmann, in his work, *Secret Sins of Youth*, proposed a plan of gradual instruction: "We speak first of the reproduction of plants, before we speak of the reproduction of mammals and human beings. We show the child the male and female blossoms of plants, and accustom them to the expressions, pollen, ovary, fruit, and so on, and show them how the pollen of the male blossom must fall on the female, if it is to bear fruit. In this way, we gain a method of speaking to the child without embarrassment of the male and female parts, of seed, conception, and the like, and these are accustomed, without shock, to hear these stories."

Modern knowledge has hardly surpassed these suggestions of method. It has been said that parents should communicate this knowledge, but only a small minority of parents are in possession of the knowledge to undertake giving information in this way, since only a few of them possess knowledge of physical science, which is necessary to consider the sexual problem of man in connection with the facts of reproduction about animals and plants, and to illustrate the similarity of the sexual processes in the entire kingdom of organic life. Often the parents have not the necessary pedagogical skill and the necessary freedom from embarrassment to speak with their children in respect to things which they have hitherto considered matters which are to be spoken of with shame. Therefore the school must give help.

Enderlin, as others, recommends that this instruction should be given in the course of nature-study. He insists that one or two hours of the week are not sufficient for such studies, and he urges that the hours for nature-study, in the schools of Germany, be increased. He speaks of the opposition of parents to this kind of instruction, and the tendency of teachers to refer such matters to the school physician. Admitting that the physician has a task, especially in connection with the older pupils and in individual cases, Enderlin insists that we have here to do essentially with an educational problem, and in this field, the teacher is the highest authority and should remain such. He further insists that only the teacher is in a position to give sexual instruction, in connection with other instruction. Only he can find the necessary points of contact, while if the duty is given to the physician, the sexual matters must be torn out of relation with the other branches of study.

The teacher can obtain the required knowledge, if he does not already possess it, without great difficulty. In the normal school, the natural-science foundation must be made so complete that it would not require great sacrifice, in order to add knowledge of this particular subject, and the questions of method should be easily answered by a teacher who is well grounded in pedagogic method. It must be said, however, that the teacher must have tact as well as knowledge. Personality counts for much. If the teacher cannot handle the matter without embarrassment before his pupils, he would better leave it alone. Enderlin insists that instruction, if it is not to fail in its purpose, must not be confined to the sexual life of man, but must be treated in connection with the facts of the renewal of organic life in general, and must be conceived as a special case in the great study of sexual activities and unfolding of powers, and therefore the sexual material will be divided in all of the annual courses of botanical, zoological, and anthropological instruction, and thus become merely a factor in the chain of biological phenomena, by which the maintenance, the rise, and the increase of life is regulated. Great care must be exercised to give information only as the child's mind is prepared for it. He insists that a sense of responsibility should be awakened, and the physical consequences of irritation of the parts be pointed out in connection with hygienic instruction. He urges that, in order to avoid too prolonged sitting, many forms of instruction can be given more actively and in the open air, in the school gardens, or in walks in the country. He sets a high value upon experimental work in physics and chemistry. He thinks that it is well to emphasize active effort on the part of the pupil much more than is now done; that the passive attitude toward books is injurious to the child. He criticizes the German custom of giving out lessons to be learned at home, and insists on the high value of play and sport.

CONCLUSIONS OF K. HÖLLER ON "THE DUTY OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL."²

Youth must be instructed in respect to sexual matters, because,

(a) Sexuality is one of the sides of human nature which so strongly influences development that a clear knowledge of these relations is a necessary part of all general education.

²Cf. Konrad Höller, *Die sexuelle Frage und die Schule*, Leipzig, Nägele, 1907. On pp. 45-54 he gives a programme of biological studies for the fourth to the eighth school years, so far as sex instruction is concerned.

(b) Because it is impossible to keep youth up to the end of school years in ignorance of sexual affairs.

(c) Because, only by means of better language in respect to sexual matters can this be exalted above the plane of impure methods of thinking and speaking.

(d) Because it is the duty of education to send forth young people instructed in the physical and social dangers of the sex life.

2. The duty of the school is therefore:

(a) Not to carry on a contest with venereal diseases, and

(b) Not to heal the pupils who are sexually perverted; but

(c) To lift up the sexual field into the kingdom of the natural, and therefore of the unprejudiced and self-evident.

(d) The immunization, by instruction and physical hardening, against sexual perversion.

(e) The furnishing of natural, scientific foundations for later instruction, in respect to the natural use and in respect to the dangers to health and to social morality of the misuse of the sexual powers.

3. The hygienic instruction of girls is to be given at the end of the public-school course, and to boys at the end of the continuation-school period.

4. The handling of sexual matters is to be left to the instruction in biology. The ethical side of the question can be treated in medical and religious instruction.

5. Sexual instruction includes three divisions: preparation for offspring, fertilization and development of the germ, birth and rearing of young. The division of the material at the different stages and their arrangement in the studies of natural history must be made according to the time at the disposal of the particular schools and the mental condition of the pupils.

6. We must see to it that sexual instruction is put into the courses of preparation of teachers.

VIEWS OF MR. KEMSIES ⁵

1. The sexual instruction of youth is necessary in order to educate the race to avoid successfully the dangers of sexual perversion and excess.

2. Sexual instruction can be made the common property of youth only by means of the school.

3. The task of the school is to be limited only by considerations of prudence and regard for public opinion, so that we may not destroy the whole work by extreme demands.

4. All explanations in respect to venereal diseases are to be deferred to the period when the youth leaves school.

5. The duty of the middle school should be to communicate to grow-

⁵ *Op. cit.*, p. 103.

ing youth a natural and therefore a sound view of human reproduction and to protect the imaginative mind from precocious and unnatural vice. The probability that boys and girls will more and more be educated together speaks for the limitation of the task of the middle schools.

6. How can the middle schools communicate to growing youth a natural and therefore a sound view of the reproduction of human beings?

(a) A properly arranged plan of instruction in nature-study cannot pass over the reproduction and development of man.

(b) In the explanation of the analogies in the reproduction of all species thorough work can especially be done in botany and in the study of the lower animals.

(c) In the consideration of sexual matters of human beings we can take into account the fact that pupils who have been properly prepared by treatment of plants and animals can independently draw many inferences without the necessity of going too much into details.

(d) A minimum of what is to be communicated may be established beyond which especially capable and tactful teachers may independently go.

(e) Nature-study, with reference to sexual information, can be continued to the fifth school year.

7. How can the middle schools otherwise prepare youth for life and protect them from precocious and unnatural excess?

(a) The teachers of the different studies must discuss the multifarious cases where sex is touched in a natural way. We must emphatically protest against the skipping over of questions in school books where this matter is glimpsed.

(b) Opportunities are offered by German studies and by history, where we can treat the matter from the standpoint of art in a more fundamental manner.

(c) When the maintenance of a school library has added moral and unquestionable reading to the circle of ideas of the pupils, we must struggle against obscene literature.

(d) Young people should be urged to take part in all kinds of sport.

(e) Scientific information alone cannot protect from sexual error and a special emphasis must be laid upon education to self-control and a sense of duty.

THE VIEWS OF MR. KOESTER OF HAMBURG⁴

1. It is necessary that the growing youth should be instructed in relation to sexual matters. In this field, where the house and the school fail, an instructive book renders good service.

⁴ *The Question of the Reading of Youth in Respect to Sexual Instruction*, p. 114.

2. Fiction is not adapted to instruction in these matters. Its field is psychological. It gives an introduction to the world of human feelings and especially to those of love.

3. Here the principle holds that children may read and hear all that is justly presented and which does not surpass their comprehension.

4. The reading of young children should not exclude every expression which relates to sexual affairs, as carrying and bearing of children and the like.

5. It is altogether false to keep from the growing youth all novels which handle the subject of love. On the contrary, youth must learn to know love and love stories which have a literary value, in order to guide the awakening feelings on the right path. The ordinary sensational stories, with their sentimentally extravagant feelings, are very injurious.

THE VIEWS OF DR. VON STEINEN ⁵

The plan of education of the higher schools has hitherto considered the life of sex as something not to be touched, and has neglected to give to the pupils, even after they have entered the age of puberty, a legitimate instruction in respect to the questions which are so vital to them. This method seems to us to be injurious. Almost all young people satisfy their desire for knowledge at unclean sources, and in that way their imagination on these things is poisoned with a hateful touch of secrecy, of the piquant, and even of the coarse. By suggestion and example, many among them, by compelling power, are led to self-abuse or to precocious satisfaction of sexual desires with prostitutes, from which diseases arise. It is urged that persons leaving school, and still under the authority of the school, should be instructed in regard to sex hygiene by suitable medical men in lectures. Such lectures are necessary: (a) In the interest of general education, for which the examination of high-school pupils should be a guarantee. Without knowledge of the physiology of reproduction, a profound view of the life of the world cannot be gained. The development of the life in family and state depends upon such knowledge. (b) In the interest of the health of the graduates. According to Blaschko's statistics, no group of the population is so affected by venereal diseases as the students of the universities. In Berlin, as high as 25 per cent. have venereal diseases. Very many young people are deceived and strengthened in their belief by base suggestions that emission makes sexual intercourse a hygienic duty, and therefore they come, because their proper counselors withhold information, to the house of ill fame, lose the charm of their sexual purity, and draw diseases upon themselves.

⁵ *Lectures before Graduates of Higher Classes*, pp. 135-38.

(c) The state has a powerful interest in having those who go from the higher schools, the ministers, the judges, the teachers, and the medical men sexually sound and ready to influence, by their example, the wide circles of society with a high conception of family life.

In fact, such lectures to graduates of high schools as have been given in years past in Düsseldorf, Frankfurt, Elberfeld-Barmen, Braunschweig, Gladbach, and elsewhere, have been given without any difficulty arising, and leaving a remarkably good impression on all who participated. The scholars voluntarily attended and preserved a proper attitude to the subjects, and found the instruction entirely natural. The parents expressed entire satisfaction. The school directors and the teachers, particularly the religious teachers of different confessions, who attended the lectures, expressed their great satisfaction in respect to the effect, and the wish that such lectures should become a permanent arrangement.

A. The principal value is in the scientific representation of the physiology of reproduction. The organs of reproduction are explained, as to their structure, by means of schematic drawings. Their products, the cell, and the egg, and the fertilization of the egg, with the wonderful process of mitosis, afford very welcome material. Conception, the carrying of young, and birth may decently be discussed in scientific form without difficulty. The personal moral responsibility of the individual in respect to sexual intercourse is understood of itself from the presentation. The paternal and the maternal cells, quantitatively alike, have worked together to produce a new organism, which now, according to the methods of division, in respect to its smallest elements, continues under the successive influence of each germ cell. The individual man is a member of a chain. On his conduct depends the weal or woe of succeeding members of society. Alcohol and syphilis debase the germ. Wholesome conduct and sexual purity improve it. The sex impulse has its proper and natural end only in the principle of reproduction. According to this standpoint, the educated man will learn to control himself. For a man of our culture period, the normal form of sexual intercourse is monogamy. By that means, family education is guaranteed to the child. Single union with the woman of one's choice is the ideal. The sexual impulse which impels to this end keeps alive the highest physical and spiritual forces. In the temporary repression of merely sensual impulses is the highest form of exercising self-control. The omission of satisfaction of sex is not injurious to the health of a sound man. Emissions with dreams are the normal and safe release of the collected material of reproduction.

Unnatural satisfaction of sex, that is self-abuse and purchased satisfaction with conscious suppression of the reproductive principle in the house of ill-fame, leads to serious injury of health.

There follows a moderate and short description of the exhaustion of the nerves in self-abuse, as well as in venereal diseases. The individual, therefore, must learn to hold the urgent sexual impulses under control by hygienic measures. In this connection some brief but powerful medical counsels are given, with respect to the exercises of the will, the water cure, abstinence from alcohol, the surrounding interests, etc.

B. Great importance must be attached to good preparation and a carefully selected form. The lecture is the first one which the graduate is to hear. The parents should have their attention called by a circular to the significance of the lecture, and it should be left to them whether they will send their sons or not. The lecture takes place in a hall. When several high schools are in a city, it is well to unite the graduates of all at such a lecture. It is natural to have the directors and some teachers present. The presence of the fathers is not essential. The best time is that between the written examinations and graduation. Only physicians, and never a minister or a teacher, should give this lecture. The hygienic principle must be the controlling one. The physician understands this material completely and he is accustomed to handle it in a natural and unembarrassed way. These lectures are to be recommended to all friends of the movement.

CONCLUSIONS OF DR. W. FUERSTENHEIM OF BERLIN ⁶

1. The sexual instruction of graduates comes too late.
2. Sexual instruction, even for the lower classes, should be given.
3. This instruction must be prepared through nature-study in relation to reproduction and its organs in animals and plants.
4. This instruction should be given by a physician, where possible, in the general course on health.
5. This instruction, after a short physiological and anatomical introduction, should refer to the dangers which the sex life brings with it: (a) Of excessive, improper, and precocious use of the organs, and (b) of venereal diseases.
6. This instruction should warn against foolish prejudices, as (a) that self-control is unmanly; (b) that the power of reproduction is lost by not using the organs; (c) that continence is otherwise injurious to health.
7. This instruction must protect modesty, and so must avoid: (a) detailed description of the sexual act; (b) detailed description of preventive methods, and (c) commerce with prostitutes.
8. This instruction must guard against extravagance, as: (a) from any artificial idealization of sexual intercourse, or (b) any extravagance in respect to injurious consequences.

⁶ *Op. cit.*

9. This instruction should recommend continence; and special medical advice should be obtained before the beginning of the course, and immediately where venereal disease is suspected.

10. This instruction should work: (a) upon the will by reference to the danger to the young mother, to the destiny of the child, to the teachings of history in respect to the value of continence in relation to the welfare of the state, and the value of self-control in respect to one's own person and his posterity; and (b) to the strengthening of the will by these means: hardening the system, physical and psychical; so called gymnastics of the feelings; diversion, that is, busying oneself with earnest matters and the development of one's own interests; exertion, spiritual work, sport, play, and gymnastics, and avoidance of dangerous influences, alcohol, vicious society, and reading. This instruction should form a part of the general course of instruction. The conclusion furnishes an introduction to sexual instruction of the younger members of high schools. In the instruction of youth it is desirable, first, to warn against the fear of chastity. There is a widespread superstition that precocious intercourse is favorable to the development of the sex organs. The organs are developed and maintained without our interference. Precocious demands upon them interfere with this development, and lead to precocious exhaustion. Diseases of continence are unknown. Complete sexual maturity, in our race, comes somewhat late; (c) by warning against the false impression concerning emissions. Such appearances are no cause for anxiety. They are signs of a beginning but not of a complete sexual maturity. They are not a signal that one must go to a woman, but rather a natural vent, so that one does not need this. Over-excitation of the organs in a mechanical way or by imagination is to be avoided. It leads to exaggeration of impulse and weakening of the power to withstand, to excessive loss of semen, to conditions of exhaustion, and so to nervousness, and unfitness for earnest work; (d) by warnings against lack of independence and curiosity. Not an irresistible impulse, but curiosity, sometimes the loss of will force on one side and temptation on the other, leads to precocious sexual intercourse. To the temptation, as to the scorn and ridicule of foolish friends, we must oppose a manly and earnest opposition, which is based on an insight into the consequences of one's own conduct, and therefore a fundamental principle must be developed.

In the second place, (a) in respect to the advantages of continence: this is easiest when the necessity is known in time, and the gymnastics of the feelings is earnestly carried out. It is promoted by sport, temperance, and earnest work. It gives men health, freshness, inner repose, and outward security. Think of the civil importance of self-control, the fate of the

old empires; (b) responsibility in respect to the girl; the unhappy position of the unmarried young mother in her family and in society; the duty of support; the fate of the unmarried, according to recent investigations; mortality; criminality; (c) the danger of venereal diseases; their extraordinary diffusion; short representation of the kinds of diseases; danger to the central nervous system: to other persons through further infection; to the offspring through inheritance. Preventive measures are often good, but are in the highest degree inadequate. Cleanliness is also here the principal thing. It is urgently recommended that before one has sexual intercourse he should take medical counsel. In case of sickness, a false modesty is out of place. Dangers of alcohol. A great part of infection occurs in drunkenness.

In the third place, the things to be avoided are: (a) the description of the sex organs and the sexual act which goes into details; (b) the details of prostitution; (c) the representation of preventive means.

CONCLUSIONS OF FRAU PROF. E. KRUKENBERG¹

THE DUTY OF THE MOTHER AND OF THE HOME

1. Special instruction is not necessary, where we have in the home fathers and mothers who have sound and pure perceptions, and who tell, whenever they have the opportunity, the truth to their children, at the right time and in a suitable form.

2. The purpose of instruction must be to educate such fathers and mothers, so that instruction from other directions may become more and more superfluous.

3. The home has an advantage over the school in the following respects. It can introduce instruction imperceptibly, and on occasion; it can fit the instruction to the individual child, according to its stage of development; and it can, in advance, avert false representations.

4. The home destroys the work of the school, very often, through a prudish, unnatural secrecy, or through frivolous laughter and remarks of double meaning, in respect to that which the child learns in school.

5. The aim of instruction is often perverted. Fanatics for instruction very frequently discuss sexual matters too much, and with too much emphasis. Prolonged discussion of the matter, as shown in many books of instruction, is to be avoided. Short, clear answers are generally sufficient. Too prolonged questioning in youth is to be avoided by imperceptible transition to other themes of speech. If there is continued inquiry, then the answer must be faithful to the truth, but always brief, and as something natural and self-evident.

6. The vice of self-abuse, without mentioning its name, must be pre-

¹ *Op. cit.*, pp. 27-29.

vented before school life begins: (a) through observation of the child by the mother; (b) by proper position in sleep; (c) through warning of danger to health; (d) through warning against perversion by school comrades,

7. Before the parental home is left, young men should be instructed in respect to the dangers of sexual intercourse, outside of marriage. Better than a personal interview, in many cases, is a pamphlet or a book. A brief appeal to the feeling of honor, and a sense of responsibility in respect to the bride and children of the future, should be urged personally.

8. Girls, who go out to wage-earning work must be warned, perhaps through a pamphlet.

9. Young girls, who remain at home, do not need detailed instruction in respect to venereal diseases, prostitution, and the like. For them, it is sufficient: (a) to declare menstruation is a necessary phenomenon, in order to secure material which is necessary for the formation of a new living being; (b) to describe a marriage for money, or support, as a sin against nature, and as a degradation for all life; (c) to teach them that to abandon themselves to men before marriage is the cause of many diseases to women and children; (d) to insist that they must regard health and purity for their own sake, and for their future children, as a duty, or, in case they do not marry, that they may be sound and efficient for a calling. This latter suggestion may help them, when they have no prospect of marriage, which unfortunately, under existing conditions, is not always possible.

10. Instruction at home does not demand much time, but only a wholesome, pure apprehension, on the part of the parents, and a bond of mutual relation between mother and child. Both of these we find in the simple conditions of life, especially in the country.

A CONSERVATIVE VIEW BY DR. F. W. FÖRSTER (ZÜRICH)⁸

It is the so-called old ethics, that view of the sex life, which has always been represented by all the deeper religion and philosophy, and which has expressed itself outwardly in the absolute prohibition of all extramarital sexual connections. This prohibition is only a symbol of the underlying conception that the sexual appetite is not to have its own way, but should be ruled strictly by the total system of life.

Förster sums up his conclusions thus:⁹

1. By sexual pedagogics we are to understand that education and instruction by which youth is enabled to subordinate the sexual life to the demands and needs which spring from hygiene, social responsibility, and the spiritual nature of man.

⁸ *Sexualpädagogik*, D. G. B. G., 1907, pp. 214 ff.

⁹ *Leitsätze*, pp. 242-49.

2. This pedagogical activity has to keep in mind these two starting-points: (a) intellectual enlightenment in respect to the facts, dangers, and responsibilities of the sexual life. It is a demand which cannot be set aside that in the place of the ever more cynical and merely sensual information of the street should be introduced the pedagogical and hygienic instruction of teacher and physician. This instruction can handle the physiological basis of the sex life in connection with studies of plants and animals, but it should precisely in this field distinguish sharply between animals and man, and take pains to show clearly that in the lower planes of life the instincts of sexual functions give the order and rule, while in human beings the spirit and conscience are destined to assume control, the animal is subject to the impulse of propagation, while the impulse of propagation should be the servant of man; (b) the education of the life of feeling—awakening of care for others, charity, sympathy, and sense of responsibility—not only by instruction but especially by practice in home and school. Important as intellectual instruction is, it is helpless without the support of all the higher powers of the soul; precisely because the sexual impulses are so strong, the corrective effort must be exerted through the emotional and motor centers. Sexual impulses must come under the control of social feelings, of devotion, chivalry, and charity, and then only will they be deprived of their blind natural power and be set in place with the higher requirements of social culture; (c) education of the imagination. It is well known that sensuality gains its greatest motive force when fancy stimulates it. Therefore it is a vital requirement of sexual pedagogics, from the beginning to fill the imagination with living pictures out of the higher ideal world of humanity and so to draw away phantasy from the service of sense. Art education and religious influence have here their unique task. It is also important to call the attention of young people directly to the hygiene and dietetics of the phantasy in relation to sex; (d) education of the will. Here arises the most important task of sexual education. Neither ethical nor hygienic instruction gains a proper influence in conduct, when the will has not power to remain true to the higher ideals in presence of impulses and illusions. How many invalids perish because, in spite of clear knowledge, they have not the will force to carry out any form of cure! Therefore the culture and exercise of the will must stand in the foreground of all sexual pedagogics. We can utilize the life of appetite for food and the tendencies to laziness, narrowness, anger, and impatience in order to train youth to subordinate body to spirit. The will requires education! Gymnastics, trade practice, household work have a value in sexual pedagogics because they exercise the child and youth in spiritual control over physical actions.

3. Sexual pedagogics may not be isolated from the rest of the life of

youth. If it is so isolated there is danger of concentrating too much attention on the sexual sphere. Weakness of will, degradation of phantasy, and abandonment of thought in this field can be corrected only by giving to character-building a place above intellectual cramming in the whole life of school and home. It is not desirable nor necessary to go into much detail in instruction about sexual matters; it is sufficient to show that certain general, well-established convictions and modes of thinking, feeling, and willing must be set up against this sphere and thus find their severest test.

Förster quotes Pestalozzi's *Lienhard und Gertrud*, where the reformer Amer is described:

Amer based his legislation against the perversities of the sexual impulse, from flirtation to child murder, on this foundation: before this appetite awakes be prepared against its assaults by exercise in thoughtfulness and order. When the sexual impulse arose it found the house civilly washed and adorned and the master of the house had power to accustom the bad spirit to the pure order which ruled the house, and at any time when it raged to lay a chain on it.

The position of Förster was regarded as somewhat extreme, austere, and impracticable by some members of this German congress; it seemed to some of the physicians a little visionary and not to give a large enough place to direct, explicit, and detailed anatomical, physiological, and hygienic instruction. So Dr. med. Julian Marcuse (Ebenhausen-München) said openly (p. 263):

This discussion before this congress has been about the questions of how, where, and who. Dr. Förster has undertaken to throw overboard all the results yet reached and in their place to set religious education and the religious factor. Instruction in his view has only a limited place, only the development of plants and animals will he teach, but when it comes to man he would omit every sort of mention of even the most natural and elementary facts. He would refuse all utilization of scientific knowledge, the results of investigation and discovery, all real relations.

VIEWS OF DR. MED. MARTIN CHOTZEN (BRESLAU)¹⁰

Dr. Chotzen mentions several plans: one, a course of lectures by a physician at meetings of teachers with voluntary attendance, illustrated with wall drawings, with opportunity for written ques-

¹⁰ *Sexualpädagogik*, D. G. B. G., pp. 300 ff.

tions at the close, not signed by the questioner. He gives his syllabus of seven lectures (two each week):

- I. Purpose of this series of lectures.
 1. Introduction to the study of sexual hygiene with the object:
 - a) the knowledge of those factors in which the influence of the teacher may make itself felt;
 - b) the explanation of the importance of the sex question for the school, the family, and the state;
 - c) further use of the appropriate literature in independent study;
 2. Development, structure, and function of the male and female organs of sex.
- II. Description of the phenomena of puberty and the attending facts. Rise of the sexual appetite.
- III. Control of impulses. Pathological manifestations.
- IV. Influence of education on control of impulses and their pathological manifestations.
- V. Impulse of sex and of propagation. The moral and economical significance of marriage for the individual. Error of the hygienic necessity for pre-marital sexual intercourse. Error of the "right to motherhood."
- VI. Moral and economic importance of marriage for the state. The Malthusian anxiety about over-population; the consequences of prevention of conception.
- VII. The effect of sexual diseases on the sick person, on his surroundings, and on marriage. The bearings of public and secret prostitution in relation to public health. The influence of education on the conduct of youth and adults of both sexes in sexual matters. Education to development of self-control in enjoyments—even in sexual gratification, and consciousness of responsibility; knowledge of the moral value of chastity up to entrance upon marriage.

He sought to show the relations of the reproductive system to the entire organism, blood vessels, nerves, and to show that the sex impulse is innate, which like any other innate impulse must be guided in the right and moral path.

SEX INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOLS¹

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FACTS INDICATING THE NEED

Social Diseases and Marriage by Dr. Prince A. Morrow is an authoritative, scholarly, readable volume that should be in the library of every institution training teachers. No one undertaking the responsibility of preparing children for citizenship, whether as parents or as teachers, is justified in ignorance of the facts concerning the prevalence of the micro-organisms of Neisser and of Schaudinn, and the appalling results to wifehood and childhood—in the last analysis to modern nations as to ancient ones.

Less expensive summaries of facts, causes, prevention, are to be found in educational pamphlets which every teacher should own, issued by the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, whose membership includes leading conservative medical authorities, biologists, statesmen, lawyers, social workers, and educators; and which, co-operating with similar scientific bodies in Europe, undertakes a campaign against "the great black plague" not less, but, if possible, more needed than that against "the great white plague," tuberculosis.

The increase in this country during the last quarter-century of these devastating diseases is unquestionably due to ignorance concerning them. The first step in preventive education is knowledge of the fact that unchastity (illegal sex relations), the commonest means of infection, occurring in from 40 to 90 per cent. of males, renders this percentage a menace to the family and society; that 20 per cent. of infections occur before the twentieth year, the largest percentage before the twenty-fifth;² that physical and mental

¹ This paper, prepared for this Handbook, represents the point of view of a high-minded woman, a teacher, and an eminent physician.

² Cf. Morrow.

habits in childhood, the result of misinformation, ignorance, and thwarted normal interest in the origin of life lay the foundation of future sexual errors; that a formidable world-wide trade is financially engaged in promoting vice, which can be destroyed only by popular insistence; that it is a companion of the saloon business; and that much of the real estate occupied by brothels and saloons is found at the tax assessor's office to be the property of men and women high in social consideration—again the question of “tainted money,” to be solved only by popular education.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS

Which class, parents or teachers, shall educate children so that present practices, with resulting widely extended invalidism, mortality, childlessness, and degeneracy, shall be checked is indicated by the fact that parenthood rarely confers the ability to train twentieth-century citizens; a very large part of recent legislative and social endeavor concerning ignorance and idleness, vice, intemperance, and child labor being focused on parental incapacity. One logical interpretation of parents' omission to instruct in the physiology and hygiene of sex is that they connect it with vulgar ideas and embarrassments, and would spare their children—a creditable motive, but a state of mind tragically wrong. Such parental misinformation passed on to children *perpetuates vice, disease, mistakes, and sorrow quite as often as does ignoring the subject.*

We have courses for training teachers, not parents. The educators' problem is to create the first generation of fathers and mothers whose understanding of elementary laws of life (biologic laws) places sex information on a scientific plane, simple *but true*, instead of the plane of ignorant traditions. “One must know what is true in order to do what is right.” Thereafter school instruction in biologic laws will not be questioned, and homes will co-operate. Such parents, like the few already informed, will understand that the child's questions about sex and new life, almost invariably beginning before four years of age, are the natural and fitting opportunities to anticipate future misinformation by truthfully responding to the temporary interest (so long as satisfied it is only temporary), thus inviting him to the same source for information next time. Untruthfulness, mystery, prohibition, embarrassment alienate confidence effectually.

Society needs co-operation by schools in this as in other education for which an earlier civilization found homes sufficient. The first undertaking must be preparation of teachers, whose information hitherto, and consequent mental attitude, has been for the most part no better than that of parents.

SCHOOL ATTEMPTS

From conversations with a large number of educators while investigating the teaching of hygiene in twenty-five of our most progressive cities, I believe it well within the truth to say that a majority, after a few years' experience, become anxiously alive to the need for sex instruction among their pupils, but are handicapped by popular and official prejudices and by personal unpreparedness; that they believe nature-study affords normal channels for the necessary information; while some see that domestic science (better called "home-making") properly taught also offers an invaluable opportunity for constructive work with both boys and girls.

A few instructors in nature-study and in home-making are demonstrating the possibilities. A study of their methods and results is worth more than theorizing. The use of pamphlets for private reading, personal interviews, lectures by physicians and other outsiders I found so unsatisfactory to educators that the reader is referred to fuller discussion of these methods.⁸ Parents' clubs in a few schools were useful to a limited degree in this as in other lines needing home co-operation.

ILLUSTRATIVE COURSES

Where sex instruction is successfully given it presents four characteristics: (a) it attacks the subject indirectly (so far as children and outsiders know); (b) it is constructive, not made up of negations; teaching about good, not about evil; (c) it is based on natural laws universal throughout organic life; (d) its method is invariably the "laboratory method"—not textbooks and memorizing; (e) the teachers are "departmental," giving the chief part of their time to elementary science, including "domestic science" or "nature-study."

⁸ *Bulletin of the American Academy of Medicine*, April, 1906; *Transactions of the American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis*, Vol. II, Putnam.

Assuming that nature-study and domestic science, already widely introduced, have come to stay, we note that sex instruction adds no new branch; rather, it co-ordinates details with this social need.

A course in the seventh and eighth grades.—The instructor had supplemented her normal training with special study of physics, chemistry, and biology at Chicago and Cornell universities. The material was magnifying glasses, school garden, living specimens in schoolroom, excursions.

With the seventh grade she began a "continued story," "The story of the world we live in," during one hour once or twice weekly. The first hour was given to attractive chemical experiments illustrating gases, vapors ("chaos"), condensation into solids, cooling, some of the properties of water, light, and heat.

This year's work was then led from the simplest forms of plant life to the complex with the motto frequently repeated: "The two objects of every living thing are to perfect itself and to reproduce itself." For every plant these two objects were the lines of study. Very early the terms "mother plant" and "father plant" were introduced, with allied terms in plant and animal "families." Reproduction in yeast cells, spirogyra and vaucheria, and in higher plant forms by spores, seeds, pollination, were seen and drawn by the children. Equal attention was given to other details, reproduction being but one among several lines of observation. The children were actively interested for they themselves were seeing and doing.

In the eighth grade the study along the same lines, perfection and reproduction, utilized insects, birds, white mice, tadpoles, etc., kept in vivariums, cages, and aquariums for daily observation. A government fish hatchery was visited and the pupils saw the details of artificial propagation. Economic and sociologic as well as hygienic and physiologic principles were talked over.

The instructor is confident that "clean living" was helped.

There were two boys two or three years older than the others. They were precocious and unclean minded. It could be seen in their faces at the beginning of the lessons. I had no private talk with them, but at certain points I took pains to have them understand. There was a complete mental revolution and moral, too. I know from their manner. They are clean, good boys now, and twice as bright.

A course in last year of grammar and first year of high school.—The instructor was a biologist with the degree of M.A., and with a

normal training. The material was microscopes, living specimens collected on excursions or from school garden, or growing in the room; a small museum. The time was two hours daily for one year.

The evolution of the vegetative functions, respiration, circulation, digestion and nutrition, elimination, and reproduction, was traced from protozoa through organisms of increasing complexity to man. By observation they learned the correlated anatomy, physiology, and functioning together—economy of effort—and only so much of it as was essential to elementary understanding of their importance to the life of the individual, but definite and clear as far as they went.

Near the end of their course the instructor gave them a "sex talk," recalling the progression of the function of reproduction from single-cell life to mammals (rabbits), reminding them of the evolution of the "home" and parental care and affection (phenomena that had impressed them greatly in their specimens); and telling them of necessity, even as children, of active, healthy, honorable lives, with no concealments, for the sake of their future homes, reminding them of the heredity they had seen in their studies. Germ diseases had already been spoken of in connection with unicellular life, and mention was now made of the prevalence among practically all immoral men and women of communicable germs that blight the lives of innocent as well as of evil people, who should be shunned as one does smallpox. The avoidance of alcoholic drinks, almost always a part of such lives, was emphasized.

RESULTS

The instructor watched results from this experiment in science closely during the following weeks, and is wholly assured that with no exception they were wholesome. The clear-eyed enthusiasm, spontaneous and eager, begging for the privilege of working over time, continued to the end. Their curiosity had been frankly answered by tracing law through its evolution. This seems the normal path for finite minds to climb to truth, specially when befouled by ignorant tradition. The difficulties are not with the young. A child's clear mind knows no embarrassments until the clouds of ignorance in some older one cast these shadows there.

The instructor noted also marked growth in initiative and self-reliance, gentleness and thoughtfulness. There is no better training in truthfulness than this drill of reporting verbally and in writing what one has done or seen. What is a better way of implanting reverence for the Maker of it all?

These pupils were required at intervals to review in a written paper definite lines of investigation. One set of papers traced the evolution of respiration, another, circulation. The papers on reproduction, just as written, were sent me, and portions are published with further details of this and other schools in the *Bulletin of the American Academy of Medicine*, April, 1906. I was particularly impressed by the excellent English, large vocabulary, logical thought, and grasp of subject.

All these supplementary effects of good work in the study of life itself are additional proof that a fundamental line of knowledge, well taught, re-enforces others and serves effectually for drill in the tools of knowledge—the three R's. Many teachers have told me that school gardens, the outdoor laboratories of nature-study, are invaluable for learning mathematics.

CHIEF DIFFICULTY AND OBJECT

It is harmful to distinguish this topic from the regular work, i. e., the mind must be guided to, through, and beyond it by logical progression. Biology offers this possibility to an ideal degree. Our stumbling block is the lack of elementary knowledge of it by superintendents, with the prevalent state of mind *re* sex subjects resulting. A less difficulty, one easily removed when superintendents require, is that the majority (not all) of biologic students are bound by academic methods, and need to arrange details for children with a view to plant in the public intelligence certain desirable trends of thought. To create popular appreciation that this gift of life, evolved straight down to each through innumerable predecessors, is a trust to be modified in his turn and passed on—or cut off—is not a difficult task for the biologist. Consciousness of it sinks into the child's mind while following the fascinating life-cycles of lower creatures, as does the fact of recurring seasons.

It must help to check trifling with one's own or another life, cutting them short by suicide, or by murder of the unborn—now

so ruthlessly common. One-quarter of all pregnancies end in abortions one-half of which are criminal, i. e., brought about, chiefly in our "respectable" classes, while a large part of the remainder is due to the *spirocheta pallida* of Schaudinn. The census of 1900 gives the infant death rate as 169.4 per 1,000 births. One eastern city has an infant mortality of 400 per 1,000, several 300, and over 100 cities have an infant mortality above 175 per 1,000 births. More than half is unnecessary. The reason for it is elementary ignorance among the products of our schools.

If growth of the child's mind epitomizes racial development, as physical growth before birth shows characteristic stages of evolution from single-celled life to mammals, we need to rearrange our artificial curricula. Natural phenomena and industries were the primeval influences developing society. There is abundant evidence for believing that these, restored in formative years, will offer normal paths for guiding the child healthfully into the complicated institutions of present social organization, a laborious task through books and memorizing alone—too often cruelly disappointing.

WHAT TO TELL A CHILD

What a child should be told has been fairly indicated in the foregoing, but is further discussed in the *Educational Pamphlet for Teachers*, as is also the possibility of dealing with the practice of self-abuse.

The introduction of methods employing larger muscular mechanisms in greater degree, as in the garden, laboratory, and shop work of the sciences and industries, together with wise modification of "calisthenics" to include swimming, rowing, walking and running, target practice, team work and individual competition in games and historic dances is indispensable in engaging attention and nervous energy in wholesome directions. More open-air interests and more sanitary indoor life are factors.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

No attempt is here made to offer a complete list of books and other publications on the topics of this Handbook; that would require another volume. For the convenience of those who desire to pursue the subject a few important titles are mentioned, with indications of further materials.

For Part I, on the medical, economic, and legal aspects of the problem, the following may be consulted:

PRINCE A. MORROW, A.M., M.D., *Social Diseases and Marriage; Social Prophylaxis*. Lea Bros. & Co., 1904. This book contains references to the professional and technical literature.

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PAUL BUREAU, *La crise morale des temps nouveaux*. A dark view of French urban life.

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For Part II, on the educational aspects of the problem, consult:

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The literature upon this topic falls into several classes: (1) Anthropological, treating of the sexual life of primitive people . . . ; the studies of abnormal phenomena . . . ; (3) studies of normal sexual psychology, like those of Frick, Scott, Gulick, Bell, and also Ellis; (4) the vast biological literature; (5) that of warning, like Storer, Howe, M. W. Allen, Sperry, Blackwell, Warren, Richmond, Stall, Wilcox, Wilder, and Morley. Most of these are too long; however, some, written by well-intentioned religious people, have had wide sale and brought their authors great gain, and perhaps on the whole they do good. (Vol. I, p. 470.)

He thinks that, perhaps, the best of all for inspiring influence is Ch. Wagner's *Youth (Jeunesse)*.

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